

The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work

THE Role of
the Teacher in
Personnel Work

RUTH STRANG

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4TH EDITION, REVISED AND ENLARGED

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Preface

During the eighteen years since the publication of the second edition of *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*, the author has become increasingly aware of the teacher's and the administrator's need for knowing how to do more effective work with individuals and with groups. In surveys of guidance in a number of cities she has seen excellent machinery for guidance superimposed by an enthusiastic administrator without the fundamental slow growth in appreciation and practice of guidance methods that is necessary if a program is to function in the lives of students. Everywhere there is a need for a better quality of counseling and group work.

For this reason in the 1946 edition the author included less about guidance and more concrete illustrations of *how to do more effective student personnel work*. There was consideration of students' need for guidance; of conditions preventing the teacher and principal from doing their best work; of reasons underlying various behavior; of programs showing the teacher's place in a larger setting; of the teacher's guidance roles in the classroom, in the homeroom or other small guidance unit, in extraclass activities, and with parents and community. Space was also given to common problems of students and methods of dealing with them and to ways of improving counseling methods and technics.

The 1953 edition follows the same general pattern, but includes still more concrete examples of counseling and group

work. It allots more space to the recent emphases on guidance in the elementary school, group dynamics, client-centered counseling, and projective methods.

All this knowledge of ways to improve the personnel work in school and college should be built into the preparation of every teacher and administrator. This is the responsibility of all institutions concerned with the education of teachers. Unfortunately, the large majority of administrators and teachers now employed in schools and colleges have had no preparation for their guidance responsibilities. Consequently, they need in-service education. They should be helped to do better personnel work than they are now doing. Improvement in the quality of their counseling and group work will greatly increase their professional proficiency and satisfactions.

Since student personnel work at all age levels has so much in common, the book is not organized in sections on guidance in the elementary school, the secondary school, the college, the university, and the professional school. Instead, the descriptions illustrate principles underlying each phase of personnel work at all ages. The continuity of guidance is emphasized.

No decision on the best terminology to describe this field of work has yet been reached. By some, *personnel work* is preferred because it directs attention at once to the individual: it is work having to do with persons. Others favor the word *guidance* because it has become so widely used to describe work with individuals and work with groups in educational institutions, especially in the elementary and high school. In this book the author reflects the present vacillation, and uses both words interchangeably, although she believes that *personnel work* should eventually be used to describe the broad process: counseling, guidance through groups, and policy-making with reference to conditions that contribute to the best development of every individual.

The author is much indebted to the writers of published books and articles in this field, as the greatly expanded, up-to-date lists of references will testify. She owes much also to the students in her course on "The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work," which she has taught—at Teachers Col-

lege, Columbia University, at Duke University, and at the University of Colorado—over a period of more than twenty years. Among the many persons who have contributed illustrations of guidance at work are the following: Julia Collins Ardayne, Marietta Banks, Lynn Bartlett, Alfred Baruth, R. C. Beemon, John W. Cogger, Adele C. Columbia, Laura W. Darley, Thomas J. Francis, Anne E. Garry, Garland Grant, Frank Hawthorne, Mary Holman, Dorothy Hughes, W. F. Irwin, Myrtle P. Jarmon, Bertha Johnson, Sarah Joyner, Alice B. Julien, Frances King, F. Knapman, Frances C. Linden, Doris Mabbin, E. Mattis, Marjorie M. Moissner, Marjorie Parkhill, Marie Prah, Martha E. Rogers, Alice P. Sterner, Marguerite Stuerhk, Pearl Trilling, Marjorie Trotter, Don Walter, Charlotte H. Wesley, Helen Williams, and Frances M. Wilson.

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Part One

PERSPECTIVE AND PROGRAM

.

For Life I had never cared greatly . . .
Anew I found nought to set eyes on,
When, lifting its hand,
It uncloaked a star,
Uncloaked it from fog-damps afar,
And showed its beams burning from pole to horizon
As bright as a brand.
And so, the rough highway forgetting,
I pace hill and dale
Regarding the sky,
Regarding the vision on high,
And thus re-illumed have no humor for letting
My pilgrimage fail.

THOMAS HARDY

letter telling him about his good work in school and Ernie would be proud of him.

With these good intentions Sam came to junior high school. There were thirty-five boys and girls in his class. They came from all over town. There were representatives of all social groups, including several of Sam's economic level and the daughter of the bank president.

Sam's elementary school record had preceded him to the new school. First there was his pink card, which showed all his marks since the first grade and also supplied the information that he was fourteen years old, that he had been left back in two grades, that his IQ was 68 (according to an Otis Quick-Scoring Test given when he was in the fourth grade), and that he had been sent on to junior high school because of his size and age. The Teacher Estimate Card filled out by his sixth grade teacher contained the following items:

INTERESTS: None to speak of

CONDUCT: Fair

ATTENDANCE: Good

ABILITY: None

FAMILY BACKGROUND: Poor

HEALTH: Good

HOBBIES: None

PECULIARITIES: Indifferent

Obviously this record gives a better picture of the sixth grade teacher than of Sam.

For the first month Sam was excited and pleased with his new school. He ate in the cafeteria, went to assembly every Tuesday morning, and took gym twice a week. He really enjoyed gym. Larger and stronger than the other boys, he could lead in that class; and the shower afterward certainly made him feel good.

But in other respects he did not fare so well. Twice, delay in opening his locker made him late to class. He also had a hard time keeping up with his class and knowing where to go for each of the seven forty-five minute periods. In most of his classes he found that as soon as he got settled down and interested in what was going on, the buzzer would sound and he would have to find his way through the crowded corridor to the next class. This frequent changing bothered him more than it did other pupils.

After he had got his schedule in hand, he learned that in most classes all you had to do was to sit still and listen. If you came to school on time and didn't talk too loudly in the hall, no one bothered you. Sam's grades were low. He failed four of the ten subjects. Hard as he tried, he couldn't pull those marks up to a

assembly programs, Miss Porter finally persuaded the principal to let her use Sam. The number she finally worked out was a trio, three boys playing guitars and singing folk songs. For a week they practiced every afternoon. Sam felt proud as he strutted through the hall at 3:15 each day with his guitar slung over his shoulder. It took a lot of work to make the number presentable, but it went over well. The audience thoroughly enjoyed it, and Sam became a person of importance—at least for a day.

In planning the annual tea dance in April the committee decided to include the guitar trio in the floor show. But the day before the dance, Sam had a falling out with one of the other two about the numbers they would play. When he could not have his way, he said, "All right, I won't play at all." The two other boys performed without him, and the judges awarded them the prize of two dollars. Sam heard about this when he came to school the next day.

From that day on Sam became more and more of a problem. He picked on the smaller boys; he refused to study; he frequently lost his temper; and he was continually being scolded by teachers. One day the principal was called in to settle a dispute between Sam and another boy, which the teacher was afraid she could not control. The principal talked the matter over with both boys and showed each where he had erred. After the other boy had returned to the class, the principal talked further with Sam: "Sam, you have become quite a problem. It seems that you just will not cooperate. You'll have to turn in your textbooks and then go home and get a note from your father stating that he knows you are being dropped from school."

At that, Sam's face brightened. His eyes beamed. "You mean I can quit school?" he asked.

Two days later, Sam came to the principal's office. He presented the note from his father: "I no Sam is expeld from skool. George Birch." He also paid for the two books he had lost. The boy seemed to be perfectly happy and in a big hurry.

"Sam," the principal said, "there are some of your personal possessions that you may take with you: your dictionary, art materials, and gym suit."

"I don't have time to collect them right now. I have to be at work by nine o'clock. I'll come for them some day. I got a job at the P—— Tool Company. I won't need a work certificate. I told them I was seventeen and they believed me. Well, good-by. I won't be a bother to you any more. Got to go to work now." When school closed in June, Sam had not yet returned for his personal belongings.

Here was a boy, coming hopefully to junior high school, who found no one there sufficiently concerned about his best

development to learn his abilities and interests and to make available the instruction, recreation, and work experiences that he needed. His homeroom and music teachers were bright spots in the situation. They were friendly and understanding. But they were hampered by lack of time, by rigid school policies, by Sam's unsuitable program, and by lack of understanding and helpful cooperation on the part of Sam's other teachers.

The most encouraging element in this situation was Sam himself. Despite the repeated failure of his home, school, and community to provide the experiences and counsel he needed, he did not become permanently apathetic or delinquent. His natural resiliency once more asserted itself as soon as he found the chance to do work in which he could succeed.

It is easy to list the lost opportunities for personnel work in this case. First was the failure of the elementary school to find out what kind of boy they were teaching and to send on to high school a record that contained some positive facts on which to build.

Second was the junior high school's failure to use even this inadequate elementary school record for what it was worth. And it was worth something: it showed beyond question the need for modifying the academic curriculum to meet Sam's needs.

Third, this modification was not made. The principal could have planned with Sam a program that would have made it possible for the boy to realize his initial hopes for success. This program would have included English and social studies, gymnasium, music, and, if possible, supervised part-time work experience. Thus Sam could have been learning and earning. Through guidance in groups he could have corrected personality faults that, if aggravated, might have caused difficulty in his work as well as in his school relations. He would have moved ahead with his own age group in those few subjects that, with more time to study and more skillful instruction, he could have comprehended. Under these conditions he could have reached the highest achievement of which he was capable.

Fourth, the junior high school did little to orient the be-

wildered child to its strange, confusing methods and subjects and its rapid shifts from teacher to teacher.

Fifth, the school should have had an adequate health service to protect all pupils from danger of infection and to insure adequate medical care for those pupils who could not afford a private physician.

Sixth, there should have been competent teacher-counselors, each having a limited number of counselees whom he could know well and whose needs he could meet by drawing on the resources in the school and the community.

Seventh, the group as a whole—teachers and pupils—lacked vision. They needed to see one another as persons with diverse gifts that could be developed for the welfare of all.

Teacher Against a Delinquent Society. Teachers often have to work to offset the destructive effects of the social environment. This is the story of a young teacher appointed to take the place of a home economics teacher who was suffering from a nervous breakdown. She saw the pupils' needs and, without encouragement or cooperation, tried to meet them.

The school was situated in a neighborhood full of poolrooms, taverns, and all sorts of conditions conducive to delinquency. Each week end was filled with excitement; sometimes there was a murder resulting from a drunken brawl. The children came to school with stories of these happenings, together with the comments and reactions that they picked up from adults. Some of the older boys and girls who had too much money were bribing the younger ones not to tell their parents what they were doing.

Most of the parents, however, were too busy earning money, drinking, or gambling to bother or even care about what was happening to their children. Some were working in neighboring towns and were home only on week ends. They expected their older children or the neighbors to care for their younger ones. Consequently, these children were ill fed, dirty, and sleepy in school.

The housing situation was also bad. The homes were overcrowded and had few modern facilities or comforts. Many families seemed indifferent to their surroundings and took poor care of the equipment they had. About 40 per cent, however, were buying homes; the rest were transients.

Despite these bad conditions, the children were fairly intelligent. Of course, they would have used their ability better had they been receiving suitable guidance and instruction. They usually neglected their lessons, and their attendance at school was ir-

regular. Talent was there, but little was being done toward developing it.

The new teacher saw that the principal and teachers were not greatly concerned about the situation. Indeed, the school's chief interest seemed to be in making a good football record. It was rumored that the games were not on the level and that members of the community were using them as betting devices and paying off the team for their own advantage. Some of the players were not even registered in school; others attended only during the football season.

In contrast with other members of the faculty, the new teacher was greatly concerned about these conditions. She made contacts with the more constructive elements in the community by attending church, playing the piano for Sunday school, and teaching a Sunday school class. As she became acquainted, she spoke with these people of her plans for improving conditions and secured their support. At the invitation of some of her pupils, she visited their homes and thus became acquainted with their families.

She started a parent-teacher association but had difficulty in getting parents and teachers to attend; they were too busy or just not interested. However, the attendance gradually improved, and parents began taking more interest in the activities of the school. They successfully sponsored a community sing and a supper to help buy equipment for the school.

To fill the need for wholesome recreation, the teacher sponsored several clubs. She organized a Friday night social club for the older boys and girls. This group met in different homes, with the home economics students serving as hostesses. The girls took pride in preparing the refreshments and in having their homes as clean and attractive as possible for the meeting. The group played games, sang, made candy, and went hiking or picnicking as the weather permitted. Another group organized a popular softball team. The dramatic club gave a play and used the money to finance a junior-senior prom, the first invitational dance ever held in the school.

In order to improve home conditions, the home economics classes arranged exhibits of food and clothing. Some of the girls made dresses, blouses, and other useful items. A group of boys formed their own cooking class and had fun cooking and serving food. They planned a luncheon for the trustees, selected their committees, and worked out every detail themselves. This luncheon was a huge success.

The teacher found the pupils receptive to these new activities. She gained their confidence and encouraged them to come to her whenever they wanted to think through personal problems or get help in their group activities.

However, her success aroused so much jealousy among other

members of the staff that the principal, who seemed more concerned about his popularity with his staff than about the welfare of the pupils, did not rehire her at the end of the term.

This teacher recognized that she was dealing with a delinquent school and a delinquent society rather than with delinquent children. She saw the potentialities for good in these boys and girls. She substituted wholesome, enjoyable activities for those less desirable, and encouraged them to take more and more responsibility for initiating and conducting their own social events and club meetings. All of this was excellent. With support and cooperation this program would eventually have made an important contribution to better living in that community.

However, she tried to carry too much of the program herself, instead of working with and through key teachers and natural leaders among pupils and parents who had caught her vision of better home and family life. When she left, there was no one in the school to sponsor these newly organized activities. The pupils may then have become more discouraged than they were before this teacher came to their rescue.

The teacher cannot close his eyes to conditions in the community. Like trees and flowers, children flourish when conditions are favorable. There is truth as well as humor in Don Marquis' comment:

In the outlines of former systems there has always been a great deal of discussion as to whether children should be brought up at home or brought up by the state.

In our system they will not be brought up at all; they will be allowed to bring themselves up; they will be surrounded by the proper influence, and simply come up, unconscious of any upbringing.²

In another community the home economics and physical education teachers took the lead in making a community survey and in doing something about the conditions discovered.

The survey showed that many children were badly in need of food, clothing, recreation, and proper supervision after school

² Don Marquis, *The Almost Perfect State*, p. 28. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Garden City, New York, 1927.

hours. Emergency measures were taken to improve conditions. The home economics department served breakfast every school-day morning to children recommended by the faculty. Free lunches were given to needy children. The "Reclamation Club" in the clothing department constructed children's clothing out of garments which had been donated by teachers and other members of the community. At intervals sales were held at which these garments were sold. The money thus obtained was used to outfit a student for graduation or for summer camp.

Health talks, pictures, and demonstrations taught students and parents how to maintain cleanliness and health under boom-town conditions. The school also took the initiative in calling together a community council of interested persons: ministers of all denominations, leaders from parent-teacher associations, doctors, nurses, social workers, representatives of the Women's Bureau of the Police Department and of the Attendance Department, and others. This council sponsored seminars, mother-daughter and father-son meetings, and parent education groups, some held in the school building and others, designated as block meetings, held in homes. Panel discussions, demonstrations, and visual materials on housing, food, clothing, health, child care, consumer education, parent education, and guidance gave real help on the immediate problems. A teen-age canteen, conducted on Friday evenings from seven to ten-thirty, was planned by a committee of students, teachers, and parents; tickets were issued through the homerooms. In these ways many teachers worked with other persons and agencies in the community to change conditions that would have defeated any attempts at guidance within the school itself. They realized the futility of a guidance program that does not lead to better living.

"Too Little and Too Late." The futility of focusing attention on problems, instead of on a preventive, developmental personnel program, has been repeatedly demonstrated in cases like the following.

John, a sixteen-year-old pupil in a junior high school, was older and taller than his classmates. He had a scar on his face that repeatedly provoked comment from the other pupils. He shunned his classmates and was slovenly in dress and in appearance. His attitude in the classroom was one of indifference, and he often "talked back" to teachers. He was frequently late and often played truant. He had an after-school job as busboy in a restaurant. The hours were long and irregular, and instead of going home to sleep after work, he frequented dance halls.

John had entered school when he was seven years old and had done well, excelling in arithmetic and athletics. His skill in play-

ing ball and swimming had made him popular with his classmates. He had been known as a "happy-go-lucky fellow." In his fourteenth year, however, two events occurred that were largely responsible for the marked change in his behavior. First, his schooling was interrupted by an automobile accident that hospitalized him for a year and left the scar on his face. Soon after his return home from the hospital, his father died, leaving his mother with insufficient income to care for her family of five. Now overage for his class, he entered the junior high school badly scarred and unable to participate in sports. This created a situation to which even the most emotionally stable individual would have difficulty in adjusting.

No one helped John to make this difficult adjustment. No one attempted to explain his situation to the other pupils, who thoughtlessly nicknamed him "Scarface" or "Clumsy." No one obtained any information about his assets and how they might be developed. He was not given the prestige of being named manager of the sport in which he had previously excelled. No contact was made with a social agency to increase the economic security of his home. No one offered him any effective counseling to help him gain a new orientation to his changed conditions.

In consequence he suffered complete failure and unhappiness in school, had recourse to undesirable recreation, and finally incurred a serious physical breakdown that required a long period in a tuberculosis hospital.

At the hospital someone contacted the social service department, and the boy's anxiety about his family was relieved. He is now enjoying a beneficial rest. He has obtained enough understanding of his disease to know that his cooperation and adherence to rules will aid in his recovery. He is well liked by his fellow patients and is doing some systematic reading and studying.

John's transition from the controlled environment of the hospital to unfavorable conditions in the outside world will be difficult. For this adjustment he should be prepared by skillful counseling. He needs to be convinced of the possibility of developing further the many good qualities which he showed in his preadolescent years. He should be helped to make an appraisal of his abilities and to obtain suitable preparation for a satisfying vocation.

This case illustrates the need for continuity in personnel work, beginning in the early years and leading into satisfactory adult adjustments to work, to family, and to civic life. If the junior high school teacher-counselor had known about this boy's happier early years and had recognized the possible psychological effects of his accident and of the changes in his economic status and family relations, then she could have

helped him to focus his attention on his assets and plan a program of remunerative work, school work, and recreation. This would have contributed to his health, his intellectual and social development, and his vocational proficiency. Furthermore, by her example and casual comments in the class, the teacher could gradually have developed among the students a personnel point of view: a spirit that finds satisfaction in the self-realization of others. This attitude in itself would have had a beneficial effect in John's case.

Counseling should be concerned with all aspects of child and adolescent development. Young people need help in understanding their physical growth, their mental development, the influence of family relations, conflicts with the culture, and social relations with boys and girls and with adults. They need to recognize and learn how to combat demoralizing influences and how to utilize constructive agencies in their community.

An Ounce of Prevention. In this case, the teacher was alert to detect first signs of difficulty and tried to understand the underlying causes.

Albert, eleven years old, was a well-formed boy with clean-cut features and a winning smile. When he entered the fifth grade, he seemed to get along well with the other children. When he engaged in conversation, his manner was pleasant and sociable. Generally he was neatly dressed when he came to school; he seemed to care about his personal appearance. However, after several weeks his teacher, Miss Manning, noticed a change in his appearance and manner. Whereas before he had looked rested and cheerful in the morning, he now seemed worn and pale. Along with this change in appearance, the teacher also noticed a growing tendency to quarrel and to show off.

As soon as she became aware of these changes, Miss Manning went to the records to get perspective. In the descriptive summaries made by previous teachers she found the same general picture: neatness, a good start; then a gradual physical letdown and attempts to gain attention.

As the record did little more than raise questions, Miss Manning sought further for the causes of Albert's annual slumps. She asked his mother, Mrs. Chase, to come to the school. In a long talk, the teacher gained understanding of conditions that were affecting Albert's school behavior. She learned that the mother, who was young, tended to protect the boy, while the much older father

was inclined to be harsh and to give Albert no companionship. The father had troubles of his own; he had nearly failed in business, apparently because of a partner's duplicity. In order to increase the family income, the mother went out to work, leaving Albert alone with the maid. Mrs. Chase said that Albert's play experiences had been unfortunate. The neighborhood children had led him into sex practices that made him feel guilty and anxious for several years afterward.

At the end of this conversation Albert came in and the three talked together. He realized that he was losing his friends in school and talked about ways in which he could keep them. Together they worked out a plan for his hours at school and at home. As he followed this plan, with the help of his parents and teachers, his morale and work improved. When at times there was a slump, Miss Manning never seemed discouraged but helped him to find the causes for it and to recover the lost ground. *Her attitude toward him was one of positive expectancy.*

As the year went on, the slumps became fewer. Albert seemed brighter and more cheerful and did better school work. He also became a regular member of a Scout troop. In another visit with his mother, Miss Manning learned that she was now working only part time and could be closer to the boy. The father also had become interested in Albert's improvement.

Although Albert was promoted from Miss Manning's class at the end of the year, she continued her interest in him. His later teachers told her that, although he occasionally got into difficulty, he was generally reliable and steady. He became a fine-looking boy, tall and strong, and a popular member of the high school baseball team. From the fifth grade on, he made rapid progress toward becoming a responsible and socially acceptable member of society.

Without stepping outside her role as a teacher, Miss Manning appears to have made a great difference in Albert's life. Children of this age are often at the crossroads, and sometimes one teacher's guidance determines which road they will take. She did nothing spectacular; her personnel work could be summed up in a few sentences:

1. The teacher observed individual children in her class, and when they seemed to be slipping back rather than growing she asked, "Why?"

2. She went to the records to gain perspective on how the child had been growing previously, not to find evidence to support her previous impressions or influence her unfavorably.

3. Realizing that school difficulties often arise out of poor home and neighborhood conditions, she had a long talk with the mother. The mother and the teacher contributed to each other's understanding of the boy.

4. They took Albert into their confidence, and all three worked out a better program for his home and school life. In the carrying out of this program he was supported by other teachers as well as by both parents. He gradually acquired techniques of dealing with his problems.

5. The teacher maintained a fine relationship with the boy: accepting, hopeful, friendly, encouraging. She kept in touch with him for several years, during which time the assurance of her interest and faith doubtless reinforced his determination to keep on improving.

This case, in marked contrast to the preceding one, shows how the continuity of a teacher's guidance may lead to personal happiness and social usefulness.

Growth Through a Relationship. Often a teacher says and does very little, yet has an apparent influence for good. The explanation often lies in the personal relationship.

Bill's interest was baseball. He had real ability in the game, and an easy-going personality that enabled him to get along with everybody. During his first year in high school he not only played soccer, basketball, and baseball, but also was active in the dramatic club and the student council. He did a good job everywhere and consequently was much in demand.

Obviously he was too busy to study, and when, in his junior year, he began to explore his future vocational plans, college seemed a vague possibility. Before the end of his junior year, however, he decided to go to college and to become a doctor. His science teacher advised him to study the catalogues of a number of colleges in which he was interested. In his senior year he selected a university away from home that he might be able to enter in spite of his present poor scholastic record. It had a good medical school, and was moderate in cost.

His parents, however, were reluctant to let their only son go so far away from home. At Bill's request, the teacher discussed the boy's future plans from all angles with his parents.

During his senior year this teacher tried to impress Bill with the need of concentrating on his subjects and cutting down on his extracurricular activities. Before he went to the university the teacher helped him to realize that premedical work would require

a great deal of time and that he could not participate extensively in sports or social activities.

During his college years Bill kept in touch with his high school teacher. Although he did only mediocre work the first half year, he eventually became convinced of the necessity for concentrating his efforts on study. He graduated from college with good grades, and is now in his second year of medical school.

Undoubtedly this high school teacher was influential in helping Bill to make the best of himself. The essence of the teacher's successful guidance was his genuine interest in the boy and his respect for him. This fine relationship needed reinforcement along several lines:

1. The teacher should have studied the results of standardized scholastic aptitude and achievement tests to check his conviction that the boy had the ability to prepare for, enter, and succeed in a medical college.

2. An earlier and more systematic exploration of the boy's interests and abilities, as indicated by his performance and satisfaction in his previous school, work, and recreational experiences, would have given further evidence of his qualifications for entering the medical profession.

3. Skillful interviewing would have helped the boy to make a more thorough and thoughtful appraisal of himself and to make more carefully considered plans for the future.

Yet, judged by its results, this teacher's guidance was effective. He probably was a good observer and synthesized the impressions he gained from many conversations and class discussions. In his interviews he may have applied the scientific method, with which he was familiar, to the solution of personal problems. Apparently his relation with the boy was free from domination. He seemed to consider himself as a resource in helping Bill to think through his future educational and vocational plans. This is sound counseling procedure.

Needed: Opportunity to Talk Things Over and Gain Perspective. The faculty adviser may make the difference between success and failure in college.

Pete, after serving several years overseas, entered college with the intention of becoming a secondary school teacher. His high school marks were above average and his scores on the college entrance examination were in the highest quarter. Although he

your mind? I'll be glad to see you on Thursday at either two or four if you'd like to talk about it further.

PETE. I guess I'd better wait a while before I drop out—I'd like to do some more thinking. I'll come in to see you at two on Thursday—O.K.?

ADVISED. That'll be fine. I'll see you then.

The second interview occurred after a three-day interval:

ADVISED. Hello there. How've you been?

PETE. Well, frankly, not so hot. Even though I've done a lot of thinking since I last saw you, things seem about as bad as ever. I suppose the only solution is to drop out of school.

ADVISED. I see.

PETE. Even though I know that I'm smart enough to pass these courses and all I have to do is to get to work and do some studying, I just can't seem to do anything about the situation.

ADVISED. It disturbs you because you think you know what you have to do and you have the ability to do it, but you just can't seem to do it.

PETE. That's it exactly. It seems very simple, doesn't it? If only I weren't so emotional and could face life more objectively I guess I'd be a lot better off. Little things upset me, and I worry about things that are really not worth worrying about. Before I went into the Service, there were three of us that used to go around everywhere together. We all liked pretty much the same things and we really had some swell times together. We all went into the Service about the same time and got out within a few months of each other. Of course, after we all became civilians again, we started palling around together once more. All of us had changed somewhat, but we still got along pretty well with each other—that is, until I started in at college. They tried their hardest to convince me to go into business with them, and they were pretty burned up with me when I told them that a college education was more important to me. Because they didn't have enough money between the two of them, they never did start their business. Frankly, I felt pretty badly about this, but this was only the first in a series of apparently mean things that I did to them. Everything I've done in regard to them seems to have been the wrong thing. For instance, one night they wanted me to go out with them, but I told them I had too much homework to do. Well, it so happened that I finished the homework earlier than I had expected, so when another friend came over to see me and suggested that we take a ride over to the movies, I decided to go. Whom should we run into at the movies but my two pals. They looked at me rather oddly, and one of them remarked, "Oh, so you had too much homework to go with us, eh?" in a very sarcastic manner. Several instances

like this have happened, and I know one of my friends, who is very sensitive, feels pretty hurt about me, and the other is just plain sore at me. Honestly, I like both of them a lot, and it bothers me a great deal to realize that they think I'm such a heel and think only about myself. I think their parents must have said something to my folks about me, too, because my father, who only went through the eighth grade, said to me one day, "If college is going to make you high-hat and think that your old friends aren't good enough for you, then you'd better quit now and go to work." All these things have been preying on my mind, and when I should be studying, I worry instead. Maybe if I quit college and went to work, I'd be able to straighten out matters with my friends and my family.

ADVISER. You feel that your inability to concentrate on your school work has been caused mainly by the worrying you've done about your friends' misunderstandings, and you wonder whether dropping out of college isn't the best way to regain their friendship.

PETE. Gosh, the time is up already. Can I come in to see you again?

ADVISER. Suppose we make an appointment for Tuesday or Wednesday afternoon. When would it be convenient for you?

PETE. Tuesday at three o'clock is O.K. See you then.

After five days the third interview was held:

ADVISER. You're looking quite cheerful today. How are you feeling?

PETE. Frankly, I'm feeling much better than I did the last couple of times I saw you. No kidding, you've no idea how relieved I felt after our last talk. I don't have any real close friends—you were the first person that I've told my troubles to. I guess it does help to talk over one's problems with someone else. It's not so good to keep everything inside of you.

ADVISER. You feel talking over your troubles was helpful to you.

PETE. I sure do. I've done a lot of thinking the past few days, and I think I'm beginning to see things in a better light. I even got started on some of my back homework, and if I continue in this frame of mind I think there's a possibility I might bring it up to date. Of course, I'm still inclined to have my periods of worrying, but they don't last so long nor seem so important. I guess it's only natural to worry, but a person shouldn't worry most of the time.

ADVISER. Even though you believe that you still worry too much, you're beginning to feel more optimistic about solving your problems in a way that will be satisfactory to both you and your friends.

PETE. Well, I still haven't decided how to patch up my troubles with my friends, but I don't think dropping out of college would help much. I didn't get up enough nerve to see them over the week end, but I think I'm going to see them pretty soon and

have a long talk with them. Maybe I've exaggerated their feelings and they're really not so angry as I think they are. It's hard for people who have never attended college to realize the amount of time involved.

ADVISER. Although you haven't decided definitely how to patch up your troubles with your friends, you do have some idea of what you're going to do. One thing, you feel that dropping out of college would not solve your difficulties.

PETE. I think I'd better stay in college for the rest of this semester anyway. You've helped me out a great deal, and I think I'll be able to get along by myself for a while. I'll probably want to see you again sometime when things get rough. Thanks.

Three weeks after this interview Pete came in to tell the adviser that he had made up most of his back work and that everything seemed to be going quite well with the pals with whom he had been having difficulty. His record showed he was doing above-average work in almost all of his subjects.

These three short interviews seemed to bring results out of all proportion to the amount of time spent. It sounds almost too simple to be true. Yet if we analyze the situation, we find that Pete had a need to get perspective and to learn to think things through. In the presence of an accepting, understanding adviser, he was stimulated to do his own thinking on the problem. By trying to clarify it in the presence of the faculty adviser, he came to see it more clearly. Moreover, when he brought out into the open some of the things that were worrying him, they lost their intensity. These worries, as they became associated with a friendly, secure relation, took on a different feeling tone than they had had in the dark recesses of his mind. To be sure, the student's emotional problems might have been deepseated, pervasive, and persistent. If so, the adviser would have recognized this and tried to obtain more expert psychotherapy for him.

These glimpses of guidance at work illustrate ways in which teachers have met, or have failed to meet, students' needs. Underlying successful personnel work are faith in every individual, understanding of him, with accent on cooperation. Through counseling, through sponsoring informal group activities, through a relationship of mutual respect, through helping to create a more favorable environment, the teacher helps children and young people achieve their best development.

THE TEACHERS STUDENTS WANT

Central to all these accounts of personnel work is the relationship between student and teacher. In no uncertain words students describe the kind of teachers they want: understanding, good-humored, friendly teachers who know students as persons. They have expressed this need vividly in their own words:

When you are in a school of 3,500, you become just a name on a record card, not a person. In my school only two of my seven teachers know me by name. All they know me by is the record card and my marks. Some of the teachers just don't seem to care.

There is need for more friendliness between pupils and teachers. I think some method should be devised to get pupils and teachers to know one another better—a club or bowling league perhaps in which both pupils and teachers participate.

Teachers should not take things personally and become emotional.

We miss a sense of humor in teachers.

I think the teachers should take a more personal interest in each pupil and make him feel as though someone besides his parents and friends outside of school were interested in his development and advancement.

Teachers should obtain a more intimate knowledge of conditions existing in the pupil's home and in his mind. All teachers should take a course in psychology to be able to understand the pupils with whom they work.

Teachers should find out what each pupil intends to be and compare his intentions with the ability he possesses. If they do this, many pupils will go into the world with more confidence in themselves, rather than with the attitude that life is a gamble and, if you strike the right spot, you are one of the lucky fellows. The worst thing a teacher could do is to make pupils discouraged. A teacher should tell a pupil of his faults privately, not talk about them with other teachers in the teachers' room.

If teachers would help students solve their personal problems, the students would look up to the teachers as friends to whom they could turn in need.

Students also want teachers who give skillful instruction. They express this idea in various ways:

Teachers should give us more responsibility and opportunity to exercise initiative and originality.

Teachers should give us more explanations. They should not demoralize us by telling us that we are dumb.

I wish teachers could get on our level and see the problems from our point of view. We have interests, but the school doesn't seem to know it. They ought to see what we really do, and help us do it better.

High school students need inspiration and drive. They have what it takes, but their potentialities are misdirected and wasted.

Most of all, I wish I had learned to study. I am not dumb and if anyone had tried at all I think I could learn. If teachers would test less and teach more, we'd learn better.

Teachers should help us see the importance of their subjects and make us feel that learning is our responsibility.

Although expressed somewhat differently by students of different ages, these characteristics of friendliness, personal interest in the student, and permissiveness within reasonable limits are generally appreciated. Older students put more emphasis on the teacher's competence and willingness to have them take responsibility.

More specifically, students express their need for educational and vocational guidance:

What do we know about college? Nothing. We are never told about the courses or subjects we can take there, and the use they would be to us.

We need an experienced person to instruct us regarding different vocations, giving in full detail the advantages and disadvantages of each and advising individuals who are aspiring to a particular field whether they are suited for it or not.

Not all the students' comments are in this critical vein. Many express appreciation of their teachers and their school:

I always felt free to ask for help and got it in the answers given. I found the teachers were both good teachers and good friends.

The most popular teacher in a girls' trade school was described as "easy to get along with"; "lots of fun"; "kind and not gronchy." "She gave me information about the school and helped me find my way around." "She gave me a lot of help about personal hygiene." "She never seemed too busy to talk with me." "When I got a low mark in a subject, she went to

the teacher and asked her about my work." "She made me feel at home, and got me into the spirit of the school." "She likes me and trusts me." These pupils' comments suggest the qualities that they appreciate most in teachers.

After students have left school, they look back and tell us what teachers have done or have failed to do for them. One graduate wrote:

I wish there had been someone to encourage me (for I greatly lack self-confidence), at least in trying for a scholarship. I doubt that I could have won one, but at least I would have had the satisfaction of knowing that I didn't pass up any opportunities but did my best to get ahead.

THE TEACHER'S PERSONALITY

The teacher's personality influences children's behavior. The friendly, happy, considerate teacher puts a child at ease. By freeing him from overanxiety and undue tension, he helps him use his abilities fully. The well-informed, unprejudiced teacher helps young people think critically and clearly on social problems that touch them closely. The teacher who has a well-defined, worthy purpose in life is helpful to students seeking values and perspective.

Burnham² believed that great teachers have in common the following characteristics:

1. Devotion to an absorbing task which gives unity and zest to life. Fortunately, teaching is a vocation that helps to make better people in a better society. Teachers who lack a sense of the far-reaching importance of their work often become worn, flurried, or cynical. Those who have a conviction of the usefulness and the social significance of their work are likely to maintain good mental health. As they see themselves in a strategic position, working in the interest of mankind, present and future, they overcome feelings of inferiority, develop a sense of personal worth, and feel that life is worth living. If they are successful in their work, they have far less need to dominate others, to rival others, to strive for power and prestige.

² William H. Burnham, *Great Teachers and Mental Health*. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1926.

2. Wide and varied interests that contribute to emotional balance. A variety of interests and affectionate relations is insurance against a pervasive sense of discouragement from loss or failure in any one area of life.

3. Power to focus attention on the present situation: the ability to mobilize one's whole personality for the task at hand. Burnham says that teachers tend to do their work three times: first in dread and anxiety beforehand; second, in the actual teaching; third, in futile regret that it was not done differently and better.⁴ Happiness for teachers, as for all other human beings, lies in living fully in the present, in overcoming obstacles day by day, and in the very process of striving to approach a realistic, worthwhile goal.

4. The habit of facing reality objectively. One has the alternative of facing a difficulty and finding a solution for it or of trying to escape from it by daydreaming, rationalizing, blaming someone else, or other methods of avoiding the truth.

5. Orderly association of ideas. Socrates and other great teachers have been characterized by orderly, coherent, clear, and logical thinking. They emphasized one simple fundamental truth at a time. Teachers who possess this ability for orderly association help the student to acquire a similar habit both by setting an example and by teaching him how to reduce his thoughts to an orderly sequence.

6. Ability to inspire confidence. When a teacher is successful and happy, he meets new problems with zest; he is convincing; his voice inspires confidence; and his mental and physical energy is at a high level. It is important that students have confidence in their teacher and feel that he is there not to censure but to understand.

7. Emotional maturity. There is real danger when a teacher seeks the emotional satisfaction of having immature students dependent upon him. The teacher who lacks normal emotional outlets may keep students dependent upon him, instead of helping them to develop independence and a capacity to make their own adjustments to life. If he is worried and troubled about many things, if he has emotional conflicts,

⁴ William H. Burnham, "Growth Through Mental Hygiene," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 17:103-106, April, 1928.

fears, and fixations, or deepseated emotional difficulties, these maladjustments may show themselves in his behavior toward students. A teacher who has become more understanding by coping with his personal difficulties will be of maximum help to his students.

In their own behalf, as well as for the students' sake, teachers should guard against overfatigue, foci of infection, and poor eating habits. Their schedule should include:

A ten-minute rest period morning and afternoon.

Part of the noon period spent out of doors on sunny days.

Relaxing, out-of-door recreation.

Social affairs that have the most health value with the least expenditure of time; for example, luncheons and suppers.

Creative art and handwork; music; gardening.

Selected radio programs.

Community service that they enjoy and that does not conflict with their other responsibilities or cause overfatigue.

By planning their days to the best advantage, teachers improve their personal and professional fitness. However, even the most well-balanced teacher may succumb to intolerable conditions. School and society have a great responsibility for the eager, resourceful, intelligent young teacher. Too often administrators help to create "problem teachers."

There is no substitute for a teacher who is a real person. Teachers who have too high a level of aspiration or too great a desire for power, and have not learned to live within their limitations, are in a constant state of tension. They do not expect to find happiness in their work. Teachers who have not achieved personal and professional security are not willing to accept excellence or success in others. They are jealous, always on the defensive, disparaging of others. They resent another teacher's success with a student with whom they have failed. They are jealous of the friendly relation which another teacher has with parents. Frequently these feelings result in gossip or in out-and-out hostility to the successful teacher.

Home conditions are sometimes not conducive to the best mental health of teachers. Many women teachers are young,

unmarried, transient, and discontented. They live alone—and do not like it; or they live with their families and are burdened with home duties and dependents.⁵

Conditions in the community are often no better. Teachers lack companionship, wholesome recreation, and the luxury of leisure. In many towns and rural communities, teachers are expected to suppress their individuality and conform to a stereotype. "The teacher is psychologically isolated from the community because he must live in the teacher stereotype."⁶ Rarely does a community provide such spacious and beautiful living quarters for teachers as a remodeled private home, containing four apartments surrounded by lawn and shrubbery, with garden plots in back. Here it is possible for each teacher to feel the "quietude of earth" after a day's work.

What are citizens doing to encourage teachers? They are blaming teachers for everything that goes wrong: for juvenile delinquency, for physical defects highlighted by the draft, and for the "shocking" lack of knowledge of isolated facts in American history. If teachers are responsible for deficiencies, are they not also responsible for the millions of law-abiding young citizens, for the large percentage of men in service who were found to be in fine physical condition, for all the well-informed citizens? Teachers are people.⁷ They need security, adventure, recognition, approval, appreciation, and a sense of personal growth and social usefulness just as students and other workers do.

For the good of the students, if for no other reason, conditions must be promoted which are conducive to good mental health among teachers. Some of these are (1) more effective procedures of teacher selection; (2) better medical and mental hygiene services for teachers; (3) provision of a "listening post"—someone who will let teachers think through their problems in his presence; (4) administrative measures that give a maximum of security to the teacher, selection of admin-

⁵ Theresa Pyle, *A Study of the Teacher's Dependency Load*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1939.

⁶ Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching*, p. 49. John Wiley and Son, New York, 1930.

⁷ Mary Holman, *How It Feels to Be a Teacher*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1951.

istrators well qualified by preparation and personality, and the employment of supervisors who appreciate and encourage originality and skillful teaching; and (5) an improved community attitude toward teachers: a willingness to appreciate and praise teachers for their good work and to pay them salaries that will enable them to serve well by living fully.

STUDENTS' NEEDS SHOWN BY CASE STUDIES AND SURVEYS

Case studies usually reveal that children need affection, most of all from parents, secondarily from teachers. Closely allied to the security that comes from being loved is the self-confidence that grows out of having work that one can do successfully. Students' self-confidence is reinforced by persons who encourage them to take suitable responsibility and who expect the best of them. In fulfilling these responsibilities, they satisfy another vital need, namely, that of being accepted as useful members of their family, school, and neighborhood.

Surveys of personnel work have indicated the following needs for guidance, instruction, and curriculum modification:

The widespread discrepancy between students' school marks and their scholastic aptitude indicates the need for courses suited to all levels of ability, for more effective and individualized instruction, for guidance in planning programs, and for counseling to help students know themselves and, in some cases, resolve inner conflicts that are preventing them from using their energy to good advantage.

Reading retardation indicates the need for instruction and practice in reading each subject, special reading groups for students who need additional help, and clinical work for complex reading cases.

Inadequate and tardy educational and vocational planning highlights the need for educational and vocational guidance. Every year some high school seniors suddenly realize that they cannot enter college; every year able students in need of financial aid wish that they had been given information about ways and means of winning scholarships. Such evidence clearly points to the need for earlier counseling with respect to fu-

ture educational plans. Similarly, students need help in making a tentative, flexible choice of an appropriate vocational field on the basis of self-knowledge and knowledge of vocations, gained, to some extent, from part-time work experience.

The wide range of personality and behavior problems uncovered by case studies and surveys calls attention to the fact that children need better conditions for growing up. The feeling of social inadequacy common to so many high school and college students suggests that they need counseling and group discussion of common problems that will help the individual see more clearly his most acceptable self and ways to attain it.

The prevalence of uncorrected physical defects and low vitality indicates the need for more functional health examinations, health guidance, and health instruction. An unhealthy school and unsanitary conditions in the community may necessitate social action or require the attention of public health authorities.

THE END IN VIEW

Without a vision of the importance of their work, school people often become discouraged. Teachers and administrators who are best qualified to do personnel work possess vision. They see their students as persons coming from widely different homes, with different interests and abilities, moving toward varied goals. They see in each student a pattern of potentialities. Each one needs help in finding his most acceptable self, in understanding why he behaves as he does, and in developing flexibility and adaptability to face an uncertain future. When circumstances over which he has no control compel him to change plans, he should be able to do so without experiencing intense feelings of frustration. Effective personnel work stems from a vision of what each child can become. We accept him as he is; provide the experiences he needs; guide him in the use of these experiences; and help him to see progress toward self-realization. This is personnel work in a nutshell.

Teachers and administrators with vision regard the school as a place where students' potentialities are discovered, ap-

praised, and developed through suitable work and play. They see gifted students developing their special talents, and those with physical or psychological defects learning to live fully within their limitations. They see students going willingly to school and withdrawing only when outside-of-school experiences offer better opportunities for growth than those which the school can provide.

They realize that the end results of personnel work are persons who are growing toward their full stature; who get along well with others and are sensitive to their needs; who have chosen, prepared for, and progressed in vocations that are personally satisfying and socially useful—persons who are able to fuse their individual, national, racial, religious, and social interests with the welfare of all humanity.

Recognizing that the school works within "a vortex of destructive forces," the teacher or the administrator with vision is challenged rather than discouraged. He will help each student, according to his maturity of comprehension, to see the destructive nature of the evil influences in society, to focus attention on making possible desirable changes, and to adjust to conditions that cannot be immediately changed.

Despite large classes, pressure for immediate results, and lack of public understanding of their work, teachers should not be discouraged or lose faith in their students or in the future. Each person must work within the limitations of his situation. Every job has its ups and downs.

✓ The teacher's work is of world-wide importance. A better world can be achieved only through the building of better people. In order to make progress toward a decent world—a world free "from needless hatreds, from unjust inequalities, and from devastating misery"—schools and colleges must work with other agencies that have the same end in view.

A CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

At this point let us try to clarify some of the concepts we have been using: education, personnel work, guidance, counseling.

Education is the process of learning through experiences.

Some of these experiences the school systematically supplies; the others are offered by life outside of school. The result of education should be the continuous growth of each student toward his best self. This growth can take place only if appropriate experiences are available and if the individual takes advantage of them.

Personnel work aims to know the individual, to help him choose, and sometimes create, the experiences he needs, and to guide him to the fullest use of these experiences. Personnel work is a process of interaction in which every individual is helped, through his own efforts, to discover and develop his best potentialities for his personal happiness and social usefulness.

Personnel work involves more than creating favorable classroom conditions and working skillfully with the group. The difference between teaching and guidance-while-teaching was illustrated in a film picturing several school situations. In one class, the teacher was demonstrating and explaining to the class as a whole a scientific procedure; the pupils were interested and attentive. In another class the teacher was skillfully reading passages from one of Shakespeare's plays. This class, too, seemed to be having a fine educational experience. These are examples of effective teaching. In a third class, the teacher, as she conducted a discussion, noted that one boy did not participate. When the period was over, none of the children talked with him. On the playground he went off by himself and sat down on the steps. The teacher joined him. They talked a few minutes about his interests and his home relations, as friend to friend. In the music period the teacher discovered that he had a superior singing voice; she gave him a solo part. The class recognized his ability and saw him in a new light. This is an example of guidance-while-teaching. The teacher who guides while he teaches is sensitive to the individuals in his class. He gives recognition to a student lacking in self-esteem, helps another to think straight on a problem, provides learning experiences to meet individual needs, takes time in class to discuss common personal problems.

In the preschool, this process of guiding individual development is commonly called *child development*; in the elementary

PERSONNEL WORK

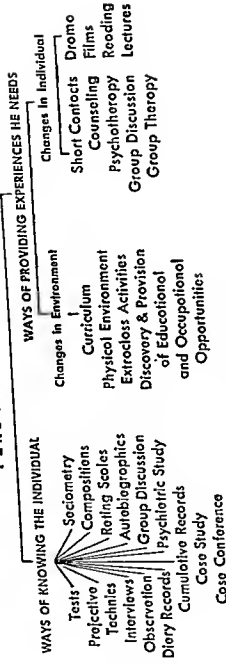


FIG. 1. The Scope of Personnel Work

school, *child guidance*; in the secondary school, *guidance*; and in college and industry, *personnel work*.

Counseling is usually considered to mean a face-to-face personal relationship which results in the growth of both counselor and student. Counseling is considered by many to be the core of the personnel program.

Personnel work and education are closely related. Obviously personnel work is not an "extra," a fad, or a frill; it is an essential part of good education. It has always been so. Wherever and whenever teachers have been concerned with helping each individual to realize his potentialities, they have exemplified the personnel point of view and have rendered guidance services. As the importance of this service became more clearly appreciated, faculty advisers were appointed. Later, personnel specialists were added to supplement and coordinate the work of faculty members.

It is clear that personnel work is closely related to both child study and the curriculum. Child study shows the experiences children need; the curriculum makes these experiences available; personnel work helps individuals to choose appropriately and succeed in the experiences which they need. This is "developmental guidance."

At special times of crises and decisions, the personnel worker helps the individual make wise choices and overcome difficulty. This might be called "guidance at strategic times."

When conditions in the home, school, or neighborhood have led to maladjustment, the personnel worker helps the individual learn how to get on the right track again. This is "remedial guidance."

The personnel point of view, in some sort of spiritual way, must pervade the entire school. It ought to be like fresh air—so natural and pervasive a part of our living that we scarcely ever bother even to talk about it.

At the present time educators still disagree about the scope of guidance, or personnel work (the two terms are used interchangeably). Some make it as broad as education; others limit it to assistance given a person in making a vocational or educational choice. The major aspects of the process may be represented by Figure 1.

The trend is toward increasing responsibility for guidance on the part of teachers, and their cooperation with specialists and community agencies. Modern personnel work seems to be moving in the direction indicated by the following principles.

PRINCIPLES OF PERSONNEL WORK

As a guide in developing a personnel program the following principles, already illustrated in the cases described, will be helpful:

1. *Respect for every person.* Each person has a right to self-determination, to develop in his own best way at his own rate; he has resources within himself to gain a clearer idea of his most acceptable self and the ways to attain it.
2. *Self-direction and self-guidance.* Each person has a drive toward self-realization; he takes initiative and responsibility, uses resources within himself to help himself; thinks through his own problems. The counselor maintains an accepting, permissive attitude, and usually refrains from passing judgments.
3. *Understanding.* Effective personnel work grows out of knowledge, not out of ignorance—understanding of the individual in his many-sided aspects, accurate, up-to-date information about educational and vocational opportunities, knowledge of personnel principles and techniques, and knowledge of their applicability to different individuals. However, no single item of information is significant by and of itself. No gain in information is important enough to justify impairment of a friendly relation.
4. *Personal relationship.* A warm, friendly relationship based on mutual confidence and respect is the core of the counseling process.
5. *Influence of the environment.* Educational, social, and economic conditions in the school and society make effective guidance possible—or impossible. The environment may also be used as an instrument of guidance. The great natural therapeutic agents are work, play, love, and religion. An attitude of realistic, positive expectancy should prevail, an

atmosphere of persons learning and growing day by day. Some of the most effective guidance takes place in connection with daily activities. The environment may be changed so that the individual can more easily cope with it. Or, experiences may be provided from which the individual can choose those that best meet his needs. In general, the role of the teacher is to make lovable those things that ought to be loved.

6. *Coordination.* Each member of the staff has a contribution to make; all work together.

7. *Prevention.* The guidance program should be primarily developmental, beginning with the education of parents and continuing through all age levels.

8. *Social usefulness.* Counseling and group work are directed toward the social end of improving interpersonal relations; social responsibility should be considered along with individual growth.

9. *Professional preparation.* Recognizing his own limitations, each teacher should take advantage of opportunities to grow in his guidance responsibilities; growth includes awareness of his own needs and motivations.

10. *Adaptability.* The situation and the nature of the individual determine the kind of program and the technics to be used.

It will be noted that three of these principles are of central importance: (1) the principle of respect for, and acceptance of, the person as he is—his capacities, interests, experiences, and faults; (2) the principle of growth, with the focus on what he may become; (3) the principle of self-direction, which recognizes the individual's resources to help himself. The other principles are supplementary guides to the best possible development of the human resources in our schools and colleges.

2

Programs of Student Personnel Work

The guidance program helps individuals to learn and grow. It is interrelated with child study, curriculum, and instruction. An effective elementary school guidance program lays a foundation for the continuation of guidance service in the secondary schools and colleges.

HOW TO GET STARTED

A common question is: How can teachers be helped to recognize the need for guidance and cooperate in improving the program? Leadership is essential. There must be someone who has vision and a knowledge of child development and guidance. This person may be the principal, the county superintendent, a supervisor, a specially trained personnel worker, or a teacher. He talks with individuals and small groups at noon hour or other free times, listening to them, helping them to develop their best ideas. *He begins where they are.*

"The Psychological Growth Problems of Children."^{1 2 3} After this preliminary educational experience they went into the schools as resource persons, helping principals, teachers, pupils, and parents with their guidance problems. They learned from parents; formed child study groups; supplied films, film strips, pictures, and other materials for guidance in groups; demonstrated guidance technics with classes; held conferences with teachers about individual pupils; interviewed children and parents; made home visits; helped teachers keep up-to-date cumulative records and use them wisely. While these "helping teachers" or coordinators were working in the schools, their education in personnel work continued through seminars and courses. This has proved an effective way of developing a program of personnel work in the elementary schools of a county or in districts within a city system. In general, elementary school teachers are responsive to effective leadership in child study and guidance. They recognize that effective work with individuals is basic to their success as teachers. Whether they call it *guidance*, does not matter.

Through the Principal. A question still more frequently asked is: How can the principal of a small school initiate and organize a guidance program with teachers who have no knowledge of guidance and without a trained personnel officer? It has been done. Glyn Morris⁴ has written a step-by-step account of how such a program was developed over a period of three years in the most difficult situation imaginable. As in the elementary school, informed leadership is essential; in this instance, the new principal of the high school took the initiative. As soon as he stepped into the school he perceived a need for guidance. Several guidance institutes held in the county under the sponsorship of the Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth had already strengthened the principal's personnel point of view

¹ Robert C. Taber, "The Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling." Philadelphia Public Schools (unpagged, no date).

² Emilie Rannells, "Counseling Service in the Philadelphia Schools," *School and College Placement*, 4:41-44, December, 1913.

³ Frances M. Wilson, "Guidance in Elementary Schools," *Occupations*, 29: 168-173, December, 1950.

⁴ Glyn A. Morris, *Practical Guidance Methods for Principals and Teachers*. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1952.

In order to increase his understanding of his work as principal and especially to acquire more knowledge and skill in counseling and group work, he attended summer school every summer during this three-year period. Against the background of his previous year's experience, these courses proved very helpful. The quality of his work with the faculty, with pupils, and with homeroom groups and the student council noticeably improved. Verbatim records of faculty meetings and student council meetings showed a marked increase in the amount and quality of member participation, improvement in the attitudes of teachers toward pupils, and growth of pupils in initiative and self-direction.

The philosophy underlying this program might be summed up in one sentence: teachers and pupils have resources within themselves that can be channeled in desirable directions by a principal who maintains a permissive, friendly relationship, shares with them his understanding of personnel work, and has faith in their capacity for growth.

Through Teachers. Sometimes in a school without a trained personnel worker, one or two teachers take the initiative for developing a guidance program. One teacher wrote: "I, along with two other teachers, have been asked to set up a guidance program in my high school next fall. I have had very little experience or background for this work." This teacher was attending summer session to get as much help as possible. She was well qualified by personality for this work—tactful, considerate and appreciative of others, and personally well adjusted. She was well liked by the other teachers. Her sense of humor often served to take the tension out of situations.

During the summer she made a tentative plan of how she would go to work: She would talk with the other teachers about the ways in which they were helping individual pupils; she would learn about situations in which they felt at a loss and information they would like to have about pupils. In the first faculty meeting devoted to the guidance program, she would ask each of them to report one of the ways of helping pupils about which they had told her. A committee might be appointed to plan other faculty meetings that would help teachers to gain more understanding of counseling and group

work. Experiences that have proved to be most helpful to teachers are panel discussions by pupils on the kind of guidance they would like to have, a series of films (see pages 461-464) followed by discussions, dramatizations of short interviews² with pupils and parents. These dramatizations, with parts read by a pupil and teacher, serve as a springboard for discussing the interview technic.

It is true that in some situations personnel work begins on the minus side of the interest scale. At the mere suggestion of any innovation, some teachers ruffle their feathers. A few seem to be incapable of dealing wisely with individual students: they are indifferent to students as persons; they tend to subdue refractory behavior rather than try to understand it; they lack psychological insight. Teachers with such attitudes should be given a minimum of responsibility in the guidance program. However, they fortunately constitute a very small percentage of the total number of teachers.

At the other extreme of the scale are teachers who are intuitively gifted in personnel work and have always had a warm and constructive relation with students. A smaller number have had training and experience in counseling and group work.

The large majority of teachers are ready to cooperate, to learn, and to grow in their guidance responsibilities. Unfortunately, many of these well-intentioned teachers are harassed by heavy teaching schedules, crowded classrooms, and the necessity of making extensive clerical reports.

As members of the faculty become interested, they may take on special responsibilities. A research-minded teacher may be glad to make a follow-up study of students who have dropped out before graduating. Another who has children of his own of college age may take responsibility for building an up-to-date file of information about further educational opportunities and financial aid. Reports of these projects may be given in a series of faculty meetings. Thus all may gain a clearer view of students' needs and of resources in the school and in the community. Before long, the faculty may ask for

² Ruth Strang, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*, Chapters VI and VII. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

expert help in defining and developing the guidance program. One of the present staff members may emerge as a leader who is eager to obtain preparation for this work.

Through Coordination of Existing Services. In many institutions of higher learning the greatest needs are (1) to coordinate the specialized services of admissions, orientation, health, housing, student activities, counseling, placement, research, and follow-up, and (2) to improve the quality of the faculty advisory work. Coordination is facilitated by a philosophy that permeates the institution, by central location of the various offices, by maintenance of cumulative records that are accessible to all, and by case conferences and other kinds of study groups. Faculty advisers can improve the quality of their contacts with students by study of counseling procedures. Dean Hawkes⁶ held regular meetings with his faculty advisers, in which they discussed the progress being made by individual students and other advisory problems. The case conference or child study approach is effective on all educational levels. Study of an individual student eventually leads to changes in curriculum, teaching methods, admission policies, and other aspects of the educational program. A student personnel program may begin with any recognized need.

- b. *Constant growth in understanding* of individual abilities, interests, and needs and *in skill* in counseling and group work methods
- c. *Provision of the experiences which each student needs* and efforts to help him select and use these experiences successfully
- d. *Follow-up studies* and other methods of evaluating the effectiveness of the personnel procedures

TYPES OF PROGRAMS FOR PERSONNEL WORK

To meet the needs of students, various types of guidance programs have grown up. All are based on a common principle: that every student should have a counselor who knows him as a whole and will help him to get the experiences, information, and guidance that he needs. This person may be a subject teacher, a core-curriculum teacher, a homeroom teacher, a teacher freed for counseling for one or two periods a day, a more highly trained counselor, a dean, a director of guidance employed full time, a member of a staff of specialists. Whatever form the program takes, the teacher holds a strategic place in it.

The Teacher-Centered Organization. This is the typical form of organization in elementary schools, in the seventeen thousand or more small public high schools with a staff of from three to ten teachers, and in certain schools and colleges having well-qualified teachers and a very small student-teacher load.

In the elementary school a class is assigned to a teacher for one or more terms. He is responsible for the guidance of this group. By observing and listening, he becomes aware of individual needs and sensitive to classroom opportunities for meeting them. Long after children leave his class, he is interested in them individually.

In high school, also, this close fusion of guidance and instruction is possible. It is reasonable that the teacher who is in contact with about thirty pupils for a large part of the school day should serve as their counselor. In some high schools the length of one period may be increased and each teacher ap-

pointed counselor of the group then in his charge. The extended period gives the teacher a better opportunity to know his pupils and to make adjustments to their needs. Part of the period may be used for discussing common problems or for giving information needed by the group as a whole.

In colleges having no formal personnel program the student's major professor often serves as his counselor. At Bennington College, the student's weekly schedule included one and a half hours for counseling. Some students, one faculty adviser said, used this time to talk about personal matters, thus avoiding discussion of their academic sins of omission; others avoided a consideration of personal problems by talking exclusively about their subjects. Students at Sarah Lawrence College have spoken with appreciation of the guidance they received from their major professors.

In other schools, the student may choose a certain teacher as his counselor. The principal, after consulting the teacher, may assign the student to him as a counselee. Thus a teacher who has established congenial relationships with students will gradually acquire a group of counselees. Other teachers will pass on helpful information and suggestions to him. Another plan is to delegate special guidance duties to certain members of the faculty. One might be assigned to attendance problems, another to advising students concerning choice of course or college, others to vocational guidance, testing, and other personnel functions. Of the two plans the first seems preferable; it is desirable that every student have a teacher-counselor who knows him as a whole person and uses special resources as needed.

Core-Curriculum Organization. The core-curriculum provides for an ideal fusion of guidance and instruction. It has taken many forms: a fusion of social studies and English; a core of general education desirable for all citizens of a free society; a center of interest to which many fields contribute; or a series of practical problems, such as those embodied in orientation to the school, or in "social living," "human relations," "life adjustment."

Under the core-curriculum form of organization, one of the core teachers has major responsibility for knowing each stu-

dent in the class and helping each to get the experiences he needs. The person in charge of a core group of thirty or forty pupils is appropriately called "teacher-counselor." He might well be called "teacher-counselor-curriculum-reviser" because he is constantly getting suggestions for changes in the curriculum as he gains understanding of individual pupils.

In a sense, the cooperative plan is a form of core curriculum, the core or center being the student's work experience. Under the cooperative program in Detroit, students attend school four hours a day and work four hours a day in offices or retail stores. Each vocational group of students has its coordinator. Once a semester the employer makes a report on the student's personality, personal appearance and hygiene, punctuality and attendance, ability to get along with others, and success on the job. A great deal of expert guidance is given by the personnel directors of the companies in which these cooperative students work. Counseling by personnel workers in the company and by the coordinator in the school is supplemented by the students' group discussions of their work experience. The well-known Antioch plan is a work-study program on the college level.

In the cooperative plan guidance takes a practical turn. Students see the vocational value of personal development. They want to be well groomed and suitably dressed. Frequently a student who is failing in school because of a language handicap, poor preparation, or low abstract verbal ability derives satisfaction and security from his job. The coordinator takes advantage of these vocational incentives to personal development in his counseling of this group.

On every educational level, the success of these plans in which instruction and guidance are fused depends on whether the teacher is:

Well qualified by personality for his guidance responsibility.
Aware of the opportunities for guidance in the classroom
and able to use his subject as an important means of student development.

Willing to learn and to grow in his ability to observe, interview, interpret behavior, keep cumulative records, conduct informal discussions, give students instruction

and practice in the technics of committee work, and develop student leadership.

Given opportunities for, and assistance in, learning to do better the personnel work he is now doing.

Homeroom Organization.⁷ The homeroom organization differs from the teacher-centered organizations already described in being less closely connected with academic instruction. Homerooms were created to restore to the curriculum the opportunities for guidance, self-expression, and development of leadership that had been lost through departmentalization. Theoretically the homeroom organization provides time for both counseling and group work.

Usually the homeroom teacher has had no preparation for his guidance responsibilities. Moreover, since most homeroom organizations use 75 per cent or more of the teaching staff, there is not much chance for selecting only the teachers best qualified for this work.

Despite these limitations, the homeroom organization has two advantages: relatively small counseling units, and time for group discussion of matters of common concern. But merely to introduce homeroom periods without preparing teachers for this responsibility is worse than futile. The scheduled homeroom time should be no longer than teachers and pupils can use effectively. It is wise to begin with a short period and provide more time as it is demanded by pupils and teachers. Many a homeroom program has failed because the teachers and pupils were not convinced of its values and lacked the necessary technics and information for conducting this kind of guidance activity.

A unique and effective organization is in operation in the Wm. A. Bass Junior High School, Atlanta, Georgia.⁸ This junior high school consists of nine little schools, three in each grade. Each of these units consists of about one hundred sixty pupils; each has one homeroom teacher and its own staff of teachers for each basic subject-matter area. Teachers of art, music, physical education, dramatics, and other special sub-

⁷ See Chapter V for more detail about homeroom procedures.

⁸ W. Joe Scott et al. *The Little School* Wm. A. Bass High School, Atlanta, Georgia, May, 1950.

jects serve all of the little schools, each at a scheduled period called the "free choice" period. This plan has the advantages of a small school plus the resources that only a large school can provide. During the periods taught by the special teachers, the regular staff of the little school are free to plan and evaluate their program, to hold case conferences, to schedule individual conferences with pupils, other teachers, and parents. These free periods provide time for the in-service education so essential to the success of any small guidance unit.

The Part-Time Counselor Organization. If not enough teachers are interested and qualified to serve as teacher-counselors of students in their subject classes, extended period groups, or core-curriculum units, or as homeroom teachers, the part-time counselor form of organization can be developed. In every school there is a nucleus of teachers whom students like and respect and who have other potentialities for counseling. These teachers may be freed from part of their teaching responsibility for conferences with students and parents, for record-keeping, and for meetings with their counselees in groups. If the counselors selected are well qualified, tactful, and popular with other teachers as well as with students, their colleagues will welcome their assistance in the guidance of students.

In its best form⁹ the part-time counselor plan includes the following features:

1. The part-time counselors are carefully chosen from among the teachers who have demonstrated their constructive relationship with students and who want to do more of this kind of work.
2. They are freed from teaching for at least two periods a day.
3. They are provided with a small private room for interviewing, and with files for their students' cumulative records.
4. Each is assigned not more than one hundred counselees.
5. The counselor visits the lower schools from which his counselees come, makes his initial contact with them there, and obtains information about them from the records and from the teachers who know them best.

⁹ See Marion Brown and Vibella Martin, "The University High School Study of Adolescents," *University High School Journal*, 17:67-116, December, 1938.

6. The counselor's contact with these students continues throughout the high school or college years unless, for personal or vocational reasons, it seems desirable to transfer them to another counselor.

7. If possible, the part-time counselor's schedule is planned so that he has his counselees in at least one of his classes.

8. There is a close reciprocal relationship between the part-time counselor and the students' other teachers; they exchange information and suggestions that may be used for the students' good.

9. The part-time counselor is acquainted with resources in the school and the community that will assist him with cases too complex or time-consuming for him to handle.

10. During his service as counselor the teacher attends weekly or bimonthly meetings with more expert personnel workers. In these meetings he can discuss his immediate problems of counseling and gain more understanding of human behavior and counseling procedures.

11. After serving as counselor for one or more groups of students, the part-time counselor may return to a full teaching schedule. To his classes he now brings, as a teacher, a keener understanding of his opportunities for guidance and an increased sense of the importance of every teacher's cooperation with other members of the staff.

The greatest danger in this part-time counselor program is that other teachers will feel that they have been relieved of their responsibility for guidance. This, of course, is not so; every member of the staff makes an essential contribution to the personnel program. In his special role, the teacher-counselor, homeroom teacher, or part-time counselor has intensified and broadened his guidance responsibilities.

Any of these plans should be thought through by all concerned, *not* superimposed upon teachers.

Personnel Work Centered in a Specialist. In contrast to the teacher-counselor programs in which specialists serve as resources, consultants, and instructors in counseling and group work methods, some educational institutions have set up a personnel department apart from the instructional program. Its aim is to provide specialized counseling service to every stu-

dent and to coordinate the technical services of the dean of women, dean of student affairs, heads of residence halls, speech clinic, student health service, and other persons offering student personnel services. Extensive personnel records kept in a central office are made available, sometimes by messenger service, to any member of the staff who needs information about a student. Insofar as this form of organization functions apart from the instructional staff, it is not in line with the present emphasis on student personnel work as an intrinsic part of the total educational program.

In order to prevent teachers from feeling that the employment of a special personnel worker relieves them of responsibility for guidance, the principal of the high school or president of the college should consult the teachers before employing a specialist. Ideally, the request for assistance in counseling should come from the teachers themselves. They should suggest the specialist's qualifications and functions. The wise specialist will go slowly. He will listen and learn, be patient, objective, understanding. He will recognize the good work being done and express appreciation of it. He will begin working on the problems about which the teachers are most concerned and will demonstrate his competence in dealing with them. He will not introduce tests that the teachers have to correct or make innovations before the teachers have come to see their purpose and usefulness. As he develops the program cooperatively with the teachers, all will feel that they are part of a going concern.

Leadership in a personnel program may be assumed by a committee or by a team of specialists. The committee form of organization seems to be growing in popularity. A combination of several methods of coordination is employed in many institutions.¹⁰ In any form of coordination, two-way communication is essential.

Reciprocal Relations of Teacher and Specialist. Whatever type of organization is developed, a well-trained specialist in personnel work should be available. The specialist works closely

¹⁰ Marian Carroll, "Overview of Personnel Workers in Colleges and Universities," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 14:3-33, October, 1950.

with the teachers and helps the entire staff to give better guidance. The relative responsibilities have been clearly described by Edith M. Everett:

✓ The teacher's part in a guidance program is inevitable. In the teacher lies all the hope of education. However fine the theory, however experimental the spirit, it is the teacher who puts them to the final test of practice. Principals and supervisors stand ready to help him, but teaching is what he as a person makes it. The school counselor is the support of the teacher at the point where individual children show need for special understanding and help. Neither can do the other's job. Together they can do much to make the school experience a positive constructive one for all children; one in which each child has a chance to grow to the limit of his ability.¹¹

In the Philadelphia school system advisory committees composed of principals of elementary and secondary schools worked with the Division of Pupil Personnel and Counseling in helping to integrate counseling and teaching. Teachers and counselors held frequent conferences which helped the teachers to do more effective counseling. The homeroom teachers, class advisers, and other school personnel used the counselor to supplement their own work with pupils. Counseling was centered upon the pupil rather than upon the problem. It began with the child's entrance into school. Skillful guidance in these early years can prevent much later maladjustment.

The guidance program recommended in the Educational Policies Commission report, *Education for All American Youth*,¹² is a combination of the core-curriculum and the special-counselor plans. In the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of the rural school, guidance is to be chiefly the responsibility of the classroom teacher. Beginning with the ninth grade the teacher's work is to be supplemented by four specially trained counselors who have formerly been teachers and still teach at least one course. In the city school, it is likewise recommended that the guidance work done by the teacher of the "common learnings," or core course, be reinforced by

¹¹ School District of Philadelphia, Philadelphia Public Schools, *Counseling Bulletin*, No. 1, p. 1, January, 1945.

¹² Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D.C., 1944.

three men and three women who have obtained training in personnel procedures and give all their time to guidance. From the ninth grade on, each of these advisers is responsible for coordinating the personnel work for two hundred or more boys or girls. Each has certain additional responsibilities: supplying teachers with the latest information about employment opportunities, administering student aid, working with the junior placement service and acting as placement officers for the school, and conducting the in-service program for teachers.

It is partly because teachers have been prepared only to teach, and not to guide, that the help of specially trained guidance workers is needed. If teachers are to serve as key persons in student personnel programs, they must have expert help.

The Best Program. There is no one best guidance program for all situations. The best plan for each situation grows out of the needs of the students, the personality and preparation of the staff, the available financial resources, and the characteristics of the community. The program should be developed co-operatively.

We should bear in mind, too, that the human relations are far more important than the form of organization; the machinery is far less important than the quality of the counseling and group work. Finally, the plan should be flexible, free to change as the human elements in the situation change.

In brief, then, these are the conditions that should be met in developing a successful program of personnel work: administrative vision and approval, expert and tactful leadership in a cooperative enterprise, recognition of individual differences among teachers, appreciation of the needs and assets in the local situation, and a willingness to proceed slowly and experimentally.

CONDITIONS INFLUENCING STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

Because personnel work permeates the whole educational plant and program, its quality is bound to be affected by physical conditions, by administrative organization, by the morale and atmosphere of the school, by the curriculum, and

by the policies of promotion, marking, attendance, and discipline. Conditions in the school and in society often defeat guidance-minded teachers. It is therefore essential that administrators and teachers recognize unfavorable conditions and try to have them corrected.

Physical Conditions. Improvements in the physical plant are usually needed. Many teachers have no private place in which to interview students and parents. If they attempt to hold interviews in the classroom, other students overhear what is said. The only alternative is to go out into the hall and carry on a hurried conversation. Privacy and convenience demand small interviewing rooms where teachers can talk with students, parents, and other teachers. In locked files in a central office cumulative developmental records can be kept and studied conveniently by teachers and counselors. The personnel office should be close to the administrative and health offices.

Rooms for large and for small group activities are requisite to an effective group activities program. A school should have small rooms for committee meetings; dining rooms for small luncheon parties; large social rooms for parties, dances, and discussions; game rooms; an attractive auditorium; and radio-listening and browsing rooms for informal recreation of a kind that should fill much of the leisure time of adult life. These rooms should be extensively used by students, out-of-school youth, and adults.

The teacher is greatly aided—or hindered—by the physical setup. Classrooms should be equipped as laboratories of learning. Each should contain library space for pertinent books covering a wide range of interest and difficulty. If the small group technic is to be used successfully, there should be tables and movable chairs for committee work. A sound-proof movable partition would make it possible for one group to engage in discussion or dramatization while other students were studying. Provision should be made for audio-visual materials, including a machine for recording and playing back class discussions, oral readings, and informal dramatizations. Bulletin boards and files are more useful for guidance purposes than the same amount of chalk-board space.

Among the physical features that cause a general feeling of strain and dissatisfaction are congested locker space, inadequate facilities for showers, and noisy cafeterias and corridors that could be made more livable by sound-absorbing walls and ceilings.

Sometimes initially poor physical conditions have actually contributed to school and community spirit. Parents, pupils, and teachers have worked shoulder to shoulder painting walls, building playgrounds, making equipment. In the process they have come to understand and respect one another.

Organization and Administrative Attitudes. It is obvious that the organization and administration of the school may facilitate or defeat effective personnel work. Many classes are too large. Although a small class does not insure individualization, a large class does make it more difficult.

The question of whether to segregate gifted and dull-normal children in separate classes confronts the administrator. The best plan seems to be a combination of heterogeneous and special grouping. For part of the day groups representing a wide range of ability and achievement work and play together. For the rest of the school day they go to special classes or "laboratories." The gifted may work on "research" problems in the library, join a workshop in advanced writing or other work for which they are ready, learn special skills such as typing or handicrafts, engage in community projects. Similarly, the retarded pupils may go to shops, attend special reading or arithmetic classes, or engage in supervised part-time work outside of school. Thus the school provides opportunities for all the pupils to develop their distinctive interests and abilities and yet have the necessary common social experiences.

The "double-shift" school, in which some of the pupils come early in the morning and go home at noon in order to make the classrooms available to the remainder of the pupils in the afternoon, offers little opportunity for counseling. The closely scheduled double session tends to result in a general feeling of tension and hurry and in *limited participation* in student activities.

The way in which principals, supervisors, and parents view

the teacher's job has a very important bearing on personnel work. The administrator should assure teachers that they are not expected to be incessantly active, explaining, admonishing, giving directions, imparting information to the class as a whole. The time they spend observing individuals, helping them learn how to learn and how to take more responsibility for their own education and guidance is professional time exceedingly well spent.

In many schools the burden of clerical work usurps time that should be spent in counseling or guidance through groups.

The Curriculum. A suitable curriculum is basic to any effective guidance program. The Educational Policies Commission¹³ suggests ways of meeting every need by providing a core of common knowledge for living and a wide variety of learning experiences in the school and community.

Work-study programs¹⁴ have proved their value. They have demonstrated the possibility of more flexible programming for all students. Many examples could be given of educational programs in which every student can succeed with reasonable effort. In the Girls Trade School in Newark, girls of limited ability are happy doing work which is suited to them and which eventually leads to self-support. In the Hadley Technical High School in St. Louis the policy is to offer exploratory courses for all pupils in the ninth grade. These try-out courses have two guidance values: (1) they enable the pupils to see for themselves what they can do and what they like to do, and (2) they give the counselors, heads of departments, and teachers opportunities to observe the pupils as they work in different vocational fields. Toward the end of the first year the counselors are able, with the assistance of data on the individual permanent record cards, to aid pupils in choosing their vocations. After the first year, the counselor hands to the head of each department a copy of the permanent record card of each pupil recommended for that department. From then on the heads of the departments and their assistants

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 40-50; 311-327.

¹⁴ Marion Brown, "The Work-Experience Program in the Oakland Public Schools," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 8 4-26, October, 1914.

become the counselors of their own groups for the ensuing years of high school. In the senior year students are permitted to work on the half-day basis in their field of specialization. For this work experience they get school credit. The counselor-coordinator checks with the employer on the student's performance and progress. These students meet with their counselor each day for one period to integrate the school program with the job.

The vocational high schools and trade schools provide avenues of education for boys and girls for whom the academic type of high school is unsuited. However, there is still a dearth of educational opportunities for overage non-academic pupils who have not been able to graduate from elementary school or who have been in classes for the mentally handicapped. To meet this need, the Metropolitan Vocational High School of New York City, in addition to taking care of its regular pupils, catered to a special group above the age of fifteen who had been unable to complete the work of the elementary grades. These pupils, carefully selected on the basis of their interest in the vocations taught at the school and their ability to profit from the training offered, were admitted even though they did not possess an elementary school diploma.

To provide suitable educational experiences for all students is more difficult in small schools and colleges than in large institutions. One small high school made a place for several new courses by combining some of the traditional subjects. For example, modern European history and medieval history were combined into one course called "European history," and the teacher's time was thus freed for a practical course in agriculture. A more common means of enriching the curriculum is to offer subjects in alternate years. For instance, a course in civics given in one year may be replaced the following year by a course in European history; thus a student can elect both courses during his school career. It is probable that the extensive development of correspondence courses which occurred during the war will continue to enrich the curricula of small schools.

One agricultural community found an unusual solution to the problem of providing suitable experiences for all the

pupils. The attendance of boys aged eleven to eighteen was very poor; obviously the high school had nothing to interest these boys. The parents were indifferent, and the compulsory education law was not enforced. The principal, teachers, and parent-teacher association met to discuss the problem. They decided to purchase an unused dance hall about a quarter of a mile away and to move it to the high school campus. They consulted the proper authorities and carried out their plan. The boys helped to remodel the building; it was then equipped for the study of agriculture, auto mechanics, brick masonry, and carpentry. These additions to the curriculum have practically eliminated absenteeism, because the boys are interested in their work and take an active part in school and community activities.

The "experience room" is another means of "fitting the school to the child." One experience room was created in response to the needs of boys and girls twelve to seventeen years of age whose mental ability ranged from low to average—a group left behind when the majority of the pupils transferred to a new junior high school. The room was large, bare, and unattractive; panes of glass were missing from some of the windows, and the shades were crooked and dirty. The group itself decided to change it into an attractive room that would afford a type of activity to suit every individual's need and interest. The youngsters took hold; the shop, art, and home arts departments helped them. Parents and neighbors became interested and helped by lending their cars to take the pupils on trips; by painting and doing carpentry work; by coming to the regular Friday afternoon "silver teas" or evening entertainments, where they often gave talks on their travels or hobbies. In fact, parents became an integral part of the program. Ten new silent typewriters were loaned, and eventually bought and paid for from funds raised by book fairs and other educational enterprises. Looking into this room at any time of the day, one could see busy, happy, well-adjusted pupils working with keen interest toward worthy and appropriate goals.

A suitable curriculum is the simplest and best preventive of behavior problems. Meier's experiments with rats that became neurotic when they were subjected to too great difficulty

suggests parallels in the classroom. Baffled by a situation they could not solve, the rats became "stubborn," "didn't try," "sulked," avoided social contacts, had "temper tantrums." In comparable circumstances children exhibit similar behavior. These are the problem cases referred to specialists, who should have had earlier opportunity to help teachers give more appropriate instruction and administer remedial help when it was first indicated.

Dr. Miriam Van Waters, out of her long experience with juvenile delinquency, described, in an unpublished lecture, a common path to delinquency: It begins with inappropriate curriculum and methods of instruction; these result in lack of success; this leads to dissatisfaction with school; then follows truancy; then membership in an undesirable gang; then stealing or other delinquency; and finally a court sentence, which alienates the boy or girl from his normal group and increases his problems of social adjustment.

Mental Hygiene Atmosphere. Other conditions in the school may produce an unbearable strain on the students. Accomplishment as an end in itself is often overemphasized: subject-matter marks, promotion, a finished product, a flawless assembly program. To be sure, a good product is to be desired, but not when it is attained by neglect of the process by which personality is developed.

We all know that a class reflects the personality of the teacher and a school reflects the personality of the principal. It is not so clearly recognized that *when a group accepts an individual and expects the best of him, his conduct and achievement improve*. For example, when a member of the Cheyenne Indian tribe had committed a crime and paid the penalty, he was welcomed back into the tribe with the expectancy, on the part of all the members, that he would not be guilty again. This faith was almost always justified. Our more savagely competitive groups should follow this example.

Another condition that creates an atmosphere conducive to good student development is a pervasive sense of purpose or worth. A high school student thus expressed the idea:

The teacher should make the pupils feel that they are important to the growth of our nation . . . even though they are in school.

The reason why most girls and boys leave our schools these days is that they have the misguided idea that school comes second instead of being as important as any job.

Policies of Promotion and Marking. Policies of promotion and marking are outward manifestations of the personnel point of view—or its absence. If we think of promotion as a device for indicating a student's progress and placing him in the group in which he will learn best, then it can be handled in the guidance way. Promotion will be individualized; students will not be promoted automatically on the basis of age nor will large numbers be left back because they failed to reach the average of achievement for the grade. Instead, the placement of an individual student for the next semester or the next year will be determined by a number of factors: his physical and social maturity, his mental ability, his previous achievement, his attitude toward the whole school situation, his relationships with students and teachers, and the teachers' ability to meet his individual needs.

Similarly, if marks are used for appraising a student's achievement rather than for passing judgment on him, they, too, have guidance value. Because marks are taken seriously by parents and students, they should surely cover all important aspects of growth. For this reason, the modern report card includes estimates of personality trends such as responsibility, cooperativeness, purpose, influence, social sensitivity, emotional maturity, and persistence, as well as of achievement in different subjects.

Marks should indicate progress and suggest to a student ways in which he can improve. An analysis of achievement such as the form shown on page 59 was worked out for each subject by the staff of Horace Mann School of Teachers College. Although a teacher could not make so detailed an analysis for every student, except in very small classes, he might teach his students to make their own analyses. Perhaps the most important thing about report cards is that they serve as immediate objectives to students and teachers. There is no reason why students should not share in the process of appraising their progress toward these objectives. They would then seek the teacher's help in their own self-appraisal.

REPORT OF PROGRESS

NAME..... Year.....

Name of Teacher. Date.....

SOCIAL STUDIES

	Superior	Acceptable	Limited
I. Understanding of Content			
A. Perception of Relationships
B. Interpretation of Data
C. Retention of Data
D. Ability to Apply Principles to New Problems and Situations
II. Skill in the Use of Materials			
A. Reading for Comprehension
B. Use of Library Facilities
C. Organization of Material in Written Form
D. Presentation of Material in Oral Form
III. Habits of Work: Growth in Power of Self-Direction as Shown by:			
A. Habit of Planning Work Effectively
B. Persistence of Effort
C. Habit of Working Independently
IV. Attitude Toward Group Responsibilities and Participation in Group Activities			

Note: Any comment under this heading takes into account (1) a student's recognition of her own individual, personal obligation to contribute to the settlement of group problems, and (2) her assumption of personal responsibility for action in accordance with her ability, information and opportunity. A teacher's experience with and knowledge of a particular student may not always be sufficient to permit her to make a worthwhile comment. Often, therefore, no estimate is offered in this section.

	Superior	Good	Acceptable	Weak	Fails to Meet Minimum Requirements
Summary or General Estimate of Accomplishment					

SPECIAL COMMENTS:

A teacher in a school system that still uses the old-fashioned report card on which percentages or letter grades are given for each subject can give this record more guidance value by adding notes or comments. He can point out, for example, that the mark in history, although low in relation to the average of the class, is a good mark for this student. If a student of limited ability is putting forth his best effort, the teacher can point out, both to him and to his parents, the progress he has made. He may also note a student's outstanding growth in responsibility, cooperativeness, and other characteristics. With a gifted student who is getting A's without putting forth real effort, the teacher can discuss responsibility for one's gifts and can translate the mark on the report card into one that shows the relation of the student's achievement to his ability. Thus by means of brief comments on the report card, a paragraph or two of interpretation and recommendation, or a few minutes' conversation with students and parents, the teacher can extract guidance value even from the old-fashioned report card.

The more fortunate teacher has a better way of reporting, worked out cooperatively by teachers, parents, and students. Periodic reports on achievement are more helpful in guidance when they:

Are accurate.

Measure the main objectives set up by the school.

Show a student where he can improve.

Interpret his achievement in relation to his own ability to achieve, as well as in relation to standards for college entrance or the requirements of different vocational fields.

Show progress and give the student a sense of growth.

Minimize competition.

Include the student's appraisal of himself.

Attendance Regulations. Policies of attendance likewise reflect the personnel point of view and affect personnel procedures. The student who is assigned work that is too difficult for him, who brings home failing marks on his report cards, who is not making friends or being accepted by his group, tends to withdraw from school. This withdrawal may take the form of absence charged to ill health psychological in

origin, truancy, or dropping school altogether if the law permits. Obviously all the school conditions already mentioned are involved in the attendance problem. The administrator should make any adjustment in the student's schedule that furthers his best development.

Theory of Discipline. Discipline may be handled as an administrative problem or as a guidance problem. The way it is handled depends upon one's definition of discipline. If discipline means the meting out of penalties for certain offenses, then it is an administrative matter. If discipline means treatment that enables the disciple or learner to grow toward self-direction and self-control, then it is obviously a matter of guidance. To deal with discipline in the guidance way requires:

An understanding of the student.

An understanding of the conditions which give rise to socially disapproved behavior.

Mutual respect and affection on the part of student and teacher.

A counseling procedure in which the student achieves insight as to why he behaved as he did and how he can handle his relationships better in the future.

Counseling that deals with so-called disciplinary behavior requires that the teacher listen and learn, focus attention on the future rather than on the past, and help the student to work out his own solution.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

To some readers, this chapter may seem to have little bearing upon the teacher's share in personnel work. Yet to the writer it seems important that the teacher see his place in the program as a whole, be aware of conditions that may create behavior problems, and focus his attention on the preventive and developmental aspects of personnel work.

3

Resources for the Teacher

Teachers are members of a guidance team; they do not work alone. In every school, in every community, some help with student personnel problems is available.

Teachers frequently need this help. Their preparation for guidance has been inadequate; their time is limited. Moreover, child and adolescent development is complex and many-sided and requires cooperative efforts.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF COOPERATIVE EFFORT

The following cases illustrate how a school nurse, a dean of women, and an expert in counseling and psychotherapy may assist teachers.

A Problem of Health Counseling. In this case the school nurse was able to help both teacher and student.

In a mining town where social and economic conditions were poor and no machinery was in operation for making conditions better, a seventeen-year-old girl was causing difficulty, especially for the teacher of physical education. Betty and her classmates had grounds for their dislike of the physical education period, the teacher, a specialist in foreign languages, was neither interested in physical education nor prepared to teach it. Betty had been cutting classes and was unfavorably influencing the attitude of the other girls. When told she must bring in a medical certificate

in order to be excused from further classes, she triumphantly produced one. Other girls were ready to use the same tactics.

Betty herself saw no value in the physical training classes. Furthermore, she was gaining attention and prestige from her antics in class and her defiance of the teacher. Betty's parents were not interested in education. They had had little themselves and felt that they got along well enough. They considered Betty quite smart and enjoyed her accounts of how she got the better of the teachers.

The school nurse served as the coordinator in this case. First, she saw the doctor. She explained that Betty's certificate had been brought to her attention and that she was anxious to help the girl arrange a health program. After describing Betty's behavior in class and the teacher's problem, the nurse asked for a diagnosis and a statement as to the length of time the certificate was to be in force. The doctor explained that the girl had come to him complaining of menstrual pain. He had felt that it would be advisable to excuse her for a few days, but saw no reason for continuing to excuse her. When the nurse asked him if he would like her to talk to Betty about menstrual hygiene, he looked relieved and said he thought it would be a good idea. She outlined her usual procedures and asked for suggestions. He approved the method she outlined.

The nurse's next step was to visit Betty's home. Mrs. Briggs said she had never discussed menstrual hygiene with her daughter. Betty had found out about it from other girls, just as her mother had done. The mother had no objection to having the nurse discuss menstrual hygiene with Betty but gave the impression that she thought the nurse might find some more useful work to do. However, after the nurse had explained the kind of information that she gave the girls and asked for Mrs. Briggs's opinion and suggestions, Mrs. Briggs became more enthusiastic. They agreed that the mother would say nothing about the matter until Betty brought it up herself.

The next interview was with Betty. The nurse noted that Betty had poor posture and a mild case of acne and that there was dirt under her painted fingernails. But her engaging grin aroused in the nurse a genuine liking for the girl. She frankly told Betty that she had gone to the doctor to find out how she could be helped through facilities available in the school. The girl answered her questions fully and intelligently and was interested in the charts and diagrams that helped to explain how constipation, faulty posture, and other factors could cause menstrual pain. Betty wanted to know whether pimples and menstruation had any connection. They discussed this problem at length and together worked out a personal hygiene schedule which Betty could follow. At the end, the nurse asked Betty if she could see any reason for taking physical

that all freshmen whose placement test scores in mathematics were low be advised to take a preliminary course in mathematics. Several of the home economics professors suggested that the chemistry course would be more meaningful to their students if it could be related more closely to the problems of food and textiles. Re-examination of the teaching method in chemistry was also considered. The psychologist agreed to spend part of each chemistry period for several weeks in giving students instruction and practice in reading the text, laboratory manual, and reference books. He agreed to prepare the practice exercises for this work if the chemistry teacher would help decide what kind of information students should be expected to get from each passage.

In this situation the dean was able to mobilize existing resources through the case conference. These resources consisted of the results of psychological tests interpreted by the psychologist, remedial work in mathematics and reading, and the relating of the chemistry course to students' major interests. Through the case conference it was possible to create conditions that prevented the unnecessary failure of many students, in addition to the one originally referred.

Expert Counseling Needed. In some cases the solution requires the help of highly trained specialists.

Clarence was fourteen years old and either unwilling or unable to "be his age." Although he had an IQ of 120—the highest in the school—he was barely keeping up with his ninth grade classes. Obviously he was not using his mental ability, carrying his share of responsibility, or accepting the fact that everyone has to grow up. As Clarence saw it, the problem was that a hard and bitter world was no longer amused at his childish antics. His attempts to "get by" in school without working and to shirk social responsibility had failed. As the parents saw it, the problem was hopeless: Clarence would argue by the hour, cry if thwarted, slip out from under responsibility, and always wear them down and get his own way. The father and mother were separated, and each blamed the other in a childish way for their broken home. Clarence lived with his mother, but his father visited him about once a month.

When he came to the new school, he had been accepted without any reference to his previous school difficulties. The teachers took the attitude that this school would stimulate him to act his age, as it had done with other children. They made an effort to interest him in sports, club work, academic work commensurate with his ability; they encouraged him to accept suitable responsibilities. Clarence, however, did not respond to these favorable environmental conditions. He was noisy, untidy, uncooperative, and in-

attitudes make a teacher's solution of a problem impossible—then the teacher should seek help. It is the responsibility of the principal to acquaint teachers with the guidance resources in the school and to give the best-qualified person in the school the responsibility for making connections with outside agencies.

The counselor's skill in referring a case contributes greatly to its successful treatment. Sometimes he must spend several interviews helping the individual face his fears and anxieties, acquainting him with the kind of service offered, and making clear its positive value for him. The counselor must also acquaint the parents with the nature and value of the specialist's treatment and enlist his cooperation. Many parents do not understand that much psychiatric work is devoted to helping normal people use their energy to best advantage. In an interview with the specialist the teacher could describe how the student is behaving in school and in other life situations.

The danger of unnecessary referral should also be recognized. Because of the persistent association of psychiatry with mental disease, much harm may be done by referring to a specialist a child who shows some temporary behavior difficulty, which may clear up of its own accord. Both child and parent may get the idea that he is abnormal or a "mental case." We need to know more about the effect of diagnosis on the individual's self-concept. The advice, "Refer the case to a specialist," is sometimes given too glibly.

Specialists are often not available. What can the teacher do then? His situation is somewhat analogous to that of a person with no life-saving training or equipment who watches a drowning man. The sensible thing to do is to try all available measures of rescue that will not further endanger the man or his would-be helper. Similarly, the teacher can recommend, when dealing with a health problem, certain beneficial principles of diet and rest. In most emotional problems, the individual is usually helped by having an opportunity to "talk it out" in the presence of an understanding person. Relieving strain and pressure by lightening the academic load, changing the student's program, giving additional effective instruction—these measures, when used as indicated in the individual

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL¹

Teachers may expect many kinds of assistance from the principal in his roles as educational leader, administrator, counselor, teacher, coordinator, and promoter of good public relations.

As a modern educational leader, the principal views the personnel program as a means of attaining the best development of teachers and students. If he knows his teachers personally, he is better able to place them in positions in which they can do their best work and get the most satisfaction. Some teachers do their best work with slow-learning children; others with rapid learners. A teacher who has an exceptionally constructive relation with a particular class may be allowed to continue with that group for another year. So far as possible the principal respects students' preferences for certain teachers, in the realization that a group formed on the basis of mutual choices has an initial advantage. He shows understanding of the difficulties under which teachers work. He shares his philosophy with them; his spirit pervades the school.

As an administrator in the narrower sense of the word, he creates conditions that make effective guidance possible—reducing teachers' clerical and routine work, decreasing and equalizing class size, preventing unnecessary failure, and adjusting schedules so that both students and teachers will have a reasonable number of classes. He will try, as we have already suggested, to provide curricular offerings that meet individuals' needs; he will work out with teachers, parents, and students better policies of attendance, promotion, marking, and discipline.

As counselor, the principal talks with teachers, students, and parents. Unfortunately, the competitive system of teacher appointment and the personal insecurity of some staff members make it difficult for teachers to accept excellence, success, or talent in each other. When the principal has to cope with petty jealousies, he should handle them with a concern for the men-

¹ Readers associated with a college or university may substitute "president," and those working in schools of nursing, "director."

tal hygiene of all involved. By talking with his teachers individually, he may be able to help them achieve insight and perspective. This is a counseling responsibility that the principal often has to assume because there is no one else to whom the teacher may turn. He can do much indirectly to promote harmony among his teachers by arousing their interest in working together on some common tasks that they can recognize as bigger and more important than themselves.

Often the most difficult discipline problems are sent to the principal's office. His skill in handling these cases serves as a demonstration to the teachers as well as a help to the student because he works closely with the pupil's teacher. He exemplifies kind, thoughtful, personal treatment of each case. Most of his counseling is accomplished in short informal contacts with the student and with his teachers.

As a teacher, the principal is responsible for stimulating the professional growth of every member of his staff. Contrasted with industry's present measures for in-service education and upgrading, the school's program seems meager and haphazard. One reason for teachers' lack of enthusiasm for in-service education may be their natural resistance to anything that seems to them an "extra." Another reason is the poor quality of many of the programs of in-service education.

Instances may be mentioned, however, where teachers have been most enthusiastic about workshops, institutes, and courses. At Hinsdale, Illinois, for example, the principal's executive committee of teachers accepted one teacher's suggestion that the entire staff return to school a week early for an institute on guidance. During the spring and summer this committee, with the approval of the rest of the staff, worked out the program. These teachers were so genuinely concerned with improving their personnel techniques that they were willing not only to return a week earlier but even to finance the cost of the institute. However, the board of education was more than willing to pay the expenses of the three specialists brought in to assist the teachers in the conduct of the institute.

On the first morning, one of the leaders conducted a group discussion of representative pupils on this question: What problems are pupils facing this fall and what guidance do they

want? With earnestness, frankness, and humor, these pupils conveyed their point of view to the listening teachers, who continued the discussion after the pupils had left. On another day a guidance specialist gave a demonstration of counseling procedure, using and interpreting the personnel records available to teachers. This demonstration was followed by a dramatization of previously recorded interviews, which was used as a basis for discussing interview techniques. Another day was spent on group work procedures.² Several social events were also scheduled. At the end of the institute, many of the teachers said it was the most valuable educational experience they had ever had; they felt much better prepared for their winter's guidance work.

When in-service programs are planned cooperatively, deal realistically with teachers' present guidance problems, enlist specialized assistance as needed, and are conducted with a certain lightness and cheer, teachers welcome rather than reject the opportunity to participate. These programs may vary widely in scope: they may comprise occasional faculty meetings devoted to guidance, or an entire summer's workshop continued during the school year through small study groups.

As coordinator, the principal, working with teachers on everyday guidance problems, develops a common philosophy. This philosophy is made concrete in a guidance program in which every student has some member of the staff as his teacher-counselor. A comfortable and convenient central guidance office and forms for the exchange of information facilitate coordination.

In his public relations capacity the principal often works with a citizens' advisory committee, community council, or discussion-action groups. He may supply information for these groups such as case studies showing how teachers and teacher-counselors have made a difference in the lives of individual students. Sometimes he may suggest studies of attendance, drop-outs, scholarship, and conduct, which may highlight the need for more effective personnel work. The results of these

² For more details of this program see H. F. Mossman, "An In-Service Guidance Week," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:31-38, October, 1943.

studies would be interpreted and made available through public meetings or through the local paper.

When a new principal is appointed to a school, he should first become acquainted with his teachers as persons and show appreciation of the personnel work they are already doing. He should help them to develop and work out their ideas and to feel successful and happy as teachers and as persons. All this he would do informally until the teachers showed readiness to consider the personnel program more systematically. When they felt the need for a specialist in guidance, the principal would take the matter up with the board of education. If they expressed the desire for in service education, he would help them to arrange a series of discussions and demonstrations. He would try to secure scholarships and leaves of absence so that they could study in university centers. Thus principal and teachers would gradually and cooperatively learn to do their best guidance work.

Sometimes the tables are turned, and the teacher plays the role of counselor to the principal. For example, one principal had acquired autocratic habits, which he carried over to a new school whose able faculty had been used to democratic procedures. He arbitrarily penalized all pupils for misbehavior, when the situation should have been handled individually. At the last minute, for no good reason, he canceled programs that teachers and pupils had carefully prepared. Authoritarian actions of this kind stemmed from his own feelings of inadequacy and insecurity in his new position. In this instance, a number of teachers, themselves emotionally mature, took the initiative in establishing a friendly relation; they talked with him casually and expressed enthusiasm for several of his ideas that coincided with what they believed to be sound practice. They gave him a "build-up" with parents and pupils. As his self-confidence increased, he began to relax and the chip came off his shoulder. After a time, he was working cooperatively and successfully with his staff. The teachers' "counseling in reverse" had worked.

Working with students, teachers, and parents in this way adds much personal satisfaction, interest, and human-relations skill to the principal's work.

TEACHERS COOPERATE WITH SPECIALISTS

Teachers cooperate with specialists along three lines: (1) recognizing individual students who need the help of a specialist, (2) supplying information about the student referred, and (3) helping to carry out the specialist's recommendations for an individual or a group.

The teacher who is sensitive to individuals in his class recognizes students in need of more expert help than he can offer. In order to use the services of experts to best advantage, the teacher not only talks with the student, as already suggested, but also gives the specialist as much background as possible. For example, teachers referring children to the Bureau of Child Guidance, Newark, New Jersey, are requested to fill out the Social Case Record form on pages 74 and 75 (quoted by permission of Dr. Bruce B. Robinson).

The treatment recommended by the specialist or clinic staff after study of a case usually involves adjustments in the school. At this point the teacher's cooperation is crucial. Without it, any specialist can only partly succeed. School social workers, psycho'logists, and psychiatrists have complained that much of their diagnostic effort is wasted because teachers do not cooperate in the treatments they suggest. This is not wholly the teacher's fault. A most important part of the specialist's job is to help teachers, through individual or case conferences, to understand how to work more effectively with individual cases.

The following are among the kinds of adjustment that specialists frequently recommend on the basis of their diagnosis:

1. Change in program and curriculum
 - a. Fewer subjects
 - b. Substitution of easier courses
 - c. Change to a curriculum in line with student's interests and vocational objectives
 - d. Change to a class or section in which the average ability is closer to that of the student in question
 - e. Enrichment of the student's program by the addition of other subjects or projects of special interest to him
 - f. Lighter load of extraclass activities

SOCIAL CASE RECORD

School Date

I. IDENTIFYING DATA
 (to be obtained from 17A-1 Cumulative Record)

Name Date of Birth

Address Sex Grade

Name of Parent or Guardian Relationship

Language Spoken in Home

II. CHILD

Health Status of Child

.....

.....

Personality and Social Development of Child

.....

.....

Outside Interests of Child

.....

.....

Parental Attitude Toward Child and School

.....

.....

Home Conditions of Child

.....

.....

Present Problem and Treatment Attempted

.....

.....

Recommendation

.....

.....

III. FAMILY HISTORY

<u>Father</u>		<u>Mother</u>	
Name	Name
Birthplace	Yrs. in U.S.	Birthplace	Yrs. in U.S.
Education	Education
Occupation	Occupation
Health	Health
If deceased—date	If deceased—date

List all children, living or deceased:

[illegible]

IV. SCHOOL HISTORY

Rating in School Subjects: Estimate academic work in terms of grade achievement; i.e., reading 2B, etc.

Reading Language Art..... Spelling Social Studies.....
Music Arithmetic Manual Work..... Physical Education.....
Teacher's Estimate of Intelligence

All Intelligence and achievement test results (group and individual)

[illegible]

Promotion Record

[illegible]

- g. Addition of club or other group activities
- h. Assignment, for health reasons, to a rest or convalescent room as a substitute for physical education or other class or study period
- i. Limited school day; arrangements to be made for the student to come late or leave early in order to get more rest or to adjust to a work schedule
- j. Lengthened noon hour
- k. Midmorning lunch of milk or orange juice
- 2. Change in methods and materials of instruction
 - a. Assignments adjusted to the individual, or individual "contracts," as in the Dalton plan
 - b. Simplified instruction, based on more skillful analysis of the learning process
 - c. More individualized instruction that takes into account personal interests and goals
 - d. Opportunities for independent study and "research" along lines appropriate to the student
 - e. Provision of reading material covering a wide range of interest and reading difficulty, including workbooks and other practice material as needed by individuals
 - f. Provision of equipment and materials for handwork, shopwork, games, and sports needed by individual students
 - g. Opportunities for work experience having educational value
 - h. Modified activity or corrective exercises in physical education class
 - i. Special seating in classes to compensate for vision or hearing loss; classes arranged all on the same floor for crippled children
 - j. Extra set of textbooks for students who should not carry a load of books to and from school
- 3. Changes in interpersonal relations
 - a. Introduction of the student into a small, congenial group
 - b. Provision of opportunities for the student to use his special ability for the good of the group and so achieve recognition and a sense of worth
 - c. Instruction in special social, athletic, or other skills that

- will help him to take his place as an acceptable member of the group and have some corner of life in which he is highly successful
- d. Enlistment of fellow students to aid in an individual's social adjustment (this must be done very skillfully)
 - e. Wise use of community resources for leisure
 - f. Provision of opportunities for leadership
 - g. Opportunity for the student to maintain a constant, friendly, warm relationship with some one person
4. Changes in attitude of parents and teachers toward the individual
- a. An attitude of expecting him to make good
 - b. An attitude of acceptance of the individual as a whole, with focus on his best potentialities
 - c. Genuine affection for the individual
5. Changes in economic conditions
- a. Financial assistance to enable the student to buy his lunch and meet other daily expenses, go to college, or obtain other preparation which he needs
 - b. Opportunities for remunerative work
 - c. Relief funds obtained for the student's family

These are only a few of the adjustments which teachers can make in accordance with the individual's need. The specialist's recommendations often seem so obvious that the teacher may think, "Why, anyone could have made those recommendations." But that is not entirely true, for the rightness of the recommendation for the individual depends upon the thoroughness and accuracy of the diagnosis. It is true, however, that many of the adjustments listed should be made to further the normal development of all students.

SPECIALISTS COOPERATE WITH TEACHERS

To make the best use of the available resources for guidance, the teacher should be familiar with the specialized services which each expert can render. Teachers should request that the board of education appoint specialists who (1) are able to help disturbed individuals whose environment is not meeting

their needs and who are withdrawing from realities with which they are not able to cope, (2) use their precious counseling time wisely and do not spend a disproportionate amount on discipline problems and routine matters, and (3) use effectively all the resources for guidance in school and in community.

At this point a short description will be given of what the teacher may expect of the librarian; the director of guidance, dean of girls or boys, and general counselor; the vocational guidance specialist; the school nurse and doctor; the visiting teacher or school social worker; the psychologist; the psychiatrist; and the guidance clinic or center.

The School Librarian. The librarian contributes much to the guidance program. From her the teacher can obtain professional books on counseling and on homeroom organization, student council, and other kinds of group work; books and pamphlets giving occupational information; books related to personal problems in the fields of health, social hygiene, emotional adjustments, boy-girl relations, family relations, and reading and study difficulties. The librarian trained in bibliotherapy can contribute to the teacher's personal adjustment by suggesting books that may help him to gain insight and perspective.

The librarian can render similar services to the students. An alcove containing up-to-date, well-catalogued information on vocations in forms suitable for students of different levels of reading ability, a file of folders on colleges and universities, an up-to-date file on scholarships and fellowships, all are invaluable aids to educational and vocational guidance. Similarly the librarian can supply readable books that will give students insight into their life adjustment.

In addition to this guidance through books, the librarian can meet the needs of individual students in a variety of ways. She can encourage some to move up the ladder of reading taste, beginning with their present interests. If time permits and she has acquired the necessary knowledge and skill, she can assist poor readers by conducting a reading clinic. By creating positions of responsibility in the library, she can bring to some students a sense of worth and to others needed financial aid. If a teacher finds that some of his students need help of

he works with the case; sometimes he refers the case to the proper community agency. When some phase of the program, such as a homeroom or activity period, is being developed, the full-time guidance worker assists the teachers by demonstrating methods, suggesting good practices, providing information and materials for students to use. He may also work with students and parents to increase their understanding and effective participation. As coordinator, the "generalist" oversees the group work program, keeps the social calendar, approves new student organizations, arranges for case conferences, sees that relevant information finds its way into each student's cumulative record folder. He plans with teachers the workshops, conferences, or other programs of in-service education which they want. As policy-maker, he works with teachers and administrators on changes in curriculum, school policy, conditions, or procedures that will improve counseling and group work.

The Vocational Guidance Expert. To the specialist in vocational guidance the teacher may turn for information about occupations and for techniques of vocational guidance. He may also use the vocational guidance specialist as a resource in complicated cases of vocational guidance and for placement services. It is quite possible to increase a student's anxiety and frustration by encouraging him to consider a plan that is highly appropriate to him but impossible to carry out. Realizing this, teachers will refer complex problems of vocational guidance and placement to a vocational counselor whenever one is available. The expert may be expected to have a knowledge of the local and regional industrial picture, of employment and training opportunities, of occupational trends, and of the best recent sources of information about vocational fields and specific vocations. He may be in charge of a school placement office or may work closely with the State Employment Service.

Teachers are fortunate if they have an agency as expert as the Vocational Advisory Service of New York City to which to refer for vocational guidance and placement graduates and students who have dropped out of school. The staff in this agency can usually devote three or four hours to each client;

the counselors are expert. They divide the time available into three parts: (1) the initial interview, followed by tests administered by a trained worker on the staff, if indicated, (2) the case conference attended by members of the staff, (3) another interview with the client.

In the initial interview the counselor obtains an impression of the client: his physical appearance; his social assets and liabilities; his mental alertness; his family relations, childhood experiences, present interests, activities, and attitudes insofar as they seem to have a bearing on the vocational plans. The counselor fits each item into a tentative pattern as he proceeds with the interview and testing; he sees each item as part of the total picture. Thus he emerges with significant conclusions for vocational guidance. (See pages 465-467.) This is truly creative counseling.

In the case conference several workers examine all the information gained about the individual and try to match their impression of him with jobs available. They also consider opportunities for his education and training. This step requires knowledge of educational opportunities, of the employment situation, and of contacts through which jobs may be obtained. In this way the counselor obtains a better understanding of the case than he could acquire alone.

In the final interview the counselor helps the counselee relate his personal appraisal to the training and jobs available, keeping his abilities, interests, personality trends, and attitudes in mind. Thus the counselee is helped in making a wise decision. By following up the counselee after placement, the counselor checks on his success in helping the person to choose, prepare for, enter, and progress in an appropriate vocation. Poor vocational adjustment is frequently caused by unsolved personality problems. Unless these are dealt with, placement is likely to be futile, as in the case of persons who seldom stay longer than three months on any job.

Placement is "a supervised search for jobs." Without an adequate placement service the process of vocational guidance is left unfinished. Moreover, placement in a job that is out of line with the individual's previous planning and preparation or inappropriate to his social and intellectual capabilities may

have a seriously demoralizing effect. These are weighty reasons for expertness.

Cooperation between the student's school counselor and the state placement office will combine the teacher-counselor's intimate knowledge of the student with the placement officer's intimate knowledge of employment and training opportunities. When the student is ready to take a job, the school counselor forwards his appraisal of the student to the placement office. There the student registers and is interviewed by a placement worker. After he is placed in a job, the employer reports on his progress to the placement office. In turn, this office reports to the school. From this follow-up, the teacher learns much about the qualifications that employers require and about the points at which the school has failed to prepare its students vocationally.

The School Nurse and Doctor. In many schools the nurse is the only specialist employed. From her, teachers have learned to expect much assistance in guidance. She has intimate knowledge of home conditions and relations. One teacher found it very helpful to go over her roll of new students with the nurse and learn about each family that the nurse had visited.

The family-centered work of the nurse frequently gets at the roots of school problems. By helping parents to greater fulfillment, she contributes to the children's best development, as the following illustration shows:

A nurse came into contact with one woman who had five children, the oldest twelve, the youngest a four-month-old baby. The mother was considering taking a job. The nurse noted these factors in the situation: the family was, at the moment, under no financial stress; the neighborhood had a high delinquency rate; nursery school was too expensive; the mothers of neighboring families went out to work; the brunt of the care of the smaller children would fall on the twelve-year-old girl. The nurse raised questions like these for the mother to consider: "Do you feel that going out to work is necessary? . . . Who would take care of the children while you were working? . . . Don't you think the care of four small children is quite a lot of responsibility for a twelve-year-old girl? . . . You have given your children very good care, Mrs. Grey. How do you feel about leaving them alone while you are working? . . . Would you like to try working out a better budget on your present income?" These questions led the mother

to consider important aspects of the problem that she had overlooked. As a result, she decided that she would wait until the baby was older before attempting to get work outside the home. By helping her decide to stay at home, the nurse probably prevented serious maladjustment of these children. Later the mother considered other ways of increasing the family income: working part time while her husband was at home, getting her younger sister to live with them for a while and take care of the baby, getting her husband a raise, taking care of neighbors' children for a small remuneration, since success with her own children indicated an aptitude for this kind of work.

If children lack proper psychological and physical care at home, if they have uncorrected remediable impairments, if they do not receive proper convalescent care, if they are unnecessarily exposed to infection on the school bus or in school—in short, if health is neglected, attempts to help them in other aspects of their development will be defeated. For this reason the teacher looks to the nurse and school doctor for essential assistance.

In the University High School, Oakland, California, the staff developed a special blank to facilitate referral to the doctor of any pupil whose health seems to need special attention. The blank includes a list of reasons for referral, which the teachers check: need for routine examination; health history; modification in school or extracurricular program; frequent absences; nervous or emotional disturbance; malnutrition; personal hygiene; fatigue; frequent colds; difficulty with heart, menstruation, breathing, eyes, hearing, teeth, skin. There is also space in which the teacher can state his reason for referral in more detail. The teacher requesting the information signs his name and indicates the subject he teaches. Below are spaces for the physician's findings, recommendations of the health case conference, and any adjustments that are made. In the end, the blank is returned to the teacher who made the referral.

The school nurse may work with teachers in a number of other ways. She may serve as chairman of a committee to plan and integrate the health program—a committee comprising the administrator and representative homeroom teachers, parents, and students. She may assist teachers in using

screening devices such as the Snellen chart or Massachusetts test of vision, in keeping cumulative records of each student's health condition, in interpreting normal development and deviations from it,² and in supplying new instructional materials for health education. Teachers may refer girls to her for information about nursing as a vocation. When a student needs special medical treatment, the nurse can facilitate referral to community agencies such as the social service exchange, public health services, the tuberculosis association, and hospital clinics. The nurse is especially helpful in the guidance of physically handicapped children. In any case conference the nurse should be present, if possible, to supply information about the student's physical condition and his health needs.

The School Social Worker or Visiting Teacher. When a teacher realizes that unfavorable home relations are tearing down a student's personality, he welcomes assistance from a social worker who understands human nature and school conditions and has time to work with parents and teacher, as in the following case:

A teacher was perplexed by a boy's behavior. When he got up to read, he made up imaginary stories instead of reading the text; he did other things to make the class laugh. When the teacher spoke to him about it and put her hand on his shoulder in a friendly way, he said in a surly tone, "You take your hands off me." All this, and more, the teacher told to the school social worker in response to questions such as these: "Tell me more about the way he behaves in class. . . . Is he good in some subjects? . . . And you don't think he is 'just bad,' as he says?"

After this talk with the teacher, the school social worker visited George's home. She observed that both parents held up his older brother as a model. "Bert never makes trouble for us, as George does," they said. In the course of the conversation, she asked such pertinent questions as these: "Why did you think I came to see you about George? . . . Why did you say you *used* to go out walking with George? . . . How does George feel about that?" From their replies she gained a better understanding of the family relations and helped the parents to gain some insight as to why George was behaving as he did. She made only one general comment: that children sometimes get the idea that their parents do not love them, and it is therefore necessary to make a point of

² George M. Wheatley and Grace T. Hallock, *Health Observation of School Children*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1931.

showing affection. She gave only one suggestion: that they plan some family affair in which George could share fully.

After the home visit, the school social worker again talked with the teacher. "You were right, Miss Adler," she began. She told the teacher how her home visit had confirmed Miss Adler's impression that George was not a "bad" boy but a misunderstood boy. During this conference the teacher suggested several things that she herself could do: give George special help in reading, see that he got recognition for his really fine work in arithmetic, help him to win recognition and a position of responsibility in the class, without making him appear conspicuous.

The problem was not solved at once, but the teacher noted that George improved during the year. Both teacher and parents were pleased with this turn for the better in George's behavior, and George himself was far happier.

It takes time for an individual to change long-established behavior; it takes many more individual hour interviews than the teacher can give. For example, an able school social worker spent one hour a week for over a year before any real change was effected in the attitude of one boy who thought of himself as a "juvenile delinquent" and had a long record of truancy, unwillingness to conform, and increasing ability to lie himself out of situations. As a child at home, he had had his own way about everything. The school he now attended, unlike the previous autocratic one, expected the pupils to conform voluntarily to regulations. In a school where freedom of choice was allowed, his lack of inner control became evident. However, with the help of the school social worker this boy figured out that he alone was able to make other persons think well of him and that the best way to accomplish this was to do his work and get along with his fellow students and teachers. He then made a real effort to work his way back into people's respect.

By working closely with an experienced social worker on individual cases, the teacher gains a better understanding of the factors that influence child and adolescent behavior, and of methods for creating favorable conditions in the classroom. Each case carries its special opportunities for learning. By working with the parents, the social worker and teacher are able to relieve tensions in the home which have interfered with the child's adjustment in school.

pleasure to watch her work. She had no difficulty in any other department and graduated with honors.

The supervisor handled this emergency situation well. The period of stress and strain might possibly have been prevented if the student's record had been studied earlier and if she had had a chance to talk out her fears and to convince herself that she had many outstanding qualities and good potentialities for success in the field of nursing. However, she might have had no readiness for psychiatric service until her failure on the ward made her receptive to this help.

The modern psychiatrist serves two distinct needs. One is people's need to realize their latent potentialities. By gaining a better understanding of themselves and their relations to others they can achieve a more satisfactory life. This is the creative need for psychiatric help. The second is a neurotic need. When the individual finds that the neurotic pattern by means of which he had tried to adjust to life is breaking down, he feels the need for help. Psychiatric service in schools and colleges should be largely of the creative kind.

After a student has been skillfully referred to a well-qualified psychiatrist, the teacher should be prepared to cooperate in carrying out the psychiatrist's suggestions for adjustments in the school. The length of psychiatric treatment depends upon the individual's ability to gain insight and to work out his insights in school and at home. Treatment cannot be considered successful until the individual has worked out satisfactory life relations. Through his control of the school environment, the teacher can make it easy or difficult for the student to convert his newly discovered insights and social feelings into everyday behavior.

The institution or school system that has a competent psychiatrist on its staff is fortunate. In addition to working with teachers on individual cases, he is an excellent person to participate in the in-service education program. He may contribute by presenting actual cases with which he has worked, interpreting the behavior involved, and emphasizing the teacher's role in achieving satisfactory solutions. This kind of invaluable service to the mental health of school children was given by the late Dr. James Plant, Director of the

Juvenile Clinic, Essex County, New Jersey, in conferences with teachers and school guidance specialists.

The Child Guidance Clinic. The child guidance clinic comprises a staff of specialists who may work in either of two ways: (1) each worker may take primary responsibility for the diagnosis and treatment of certain types of cases that are referred to him, or (2) each worker may study each child from his specialized point of view; then all may pool their information in the case conference and jointly make plans for treatment. The teacher may expect the following services from the child guidance clinic:

- Information on the kinds of cases that can be treated by the clinic

- Leadership in promoting mentally hygienic attitudes and procedures in the schools

- Thorough diagnosis and treatment of the cases referred to the clinic by the school

- Assistance in referring to other agencies the cases that the clinic is not able to treat

- Assistance in understanding the student and exploring the ways in which he can be helped in school

- Courses for teachers, offered in schools in which the clinic is working, to reinforce the effectiveness of its work with individuals

It should always be kept in mind that any specialized personnel resource is successful only if it helps teachers to carry still more effectively their responsibility for guidance.

TEACHERS' RELATIONS WITH THE COMMUNITY

The community may be the teacher's most important resource for guidance. It is the teacher's responsibility to use constructive influences and to help modify, control, or eliminate destructive forces.

There are a number of ways in which teachers can find out about the community's needs and resources for guidance. In one community where the needs for better family life, health, clothing, food, medical care, and recreation were very great, the teachers determined to do something to meet these needs.

After many conferences they decided to make a family survey. They formed teams, each of which surveyed a certain number of homes and obtained information about the number of children in the family, education of the parents, divorce or separation, and physical facilities such as electricity, bathrooms, and heating equipment. By means of this survey the teachers gained more understanding of the children in their classes, paved the way for a closer relationship between home and school, and made active efforts to change the bad conditions which they had seen with their own eyes. In a mass meeting parents and teachers discussed ways in which the most pressing needs could be met. Teachers should not have had to do this emergency work. But, others failing, they felt they could not fail the children.

This idea of working together for a better community—better houses, recreational equipment, gardens, community canning and freezing equipment for family use, a day nursery, a toy library, workshops where home equipment can be made—may be carried out in many forms under different auspices. It may be initiated by the school, as in Greenville, South Carolina,⁴ or by a settlement like Flanner House.⁵ In any form, it represents a fundamental attack on the problem of building better people and a better community. Social work has long recognized the need for social action and social research, the while it tries to deal, through group work and case work agencies, with the victims of poor heredity and environment.

The environment is more often beneficial than harmful to an individual. Life itself is a therapeutic agency. In many cases it is possible for the teacher to enlist the positive environmental forces on his side.

A change of environment, such as placement in a foster home, is sometimes recommended. Change of environment alone, however, does not solve behavior problems or produce a sudden improvement in personality. Unless children are

⁴ George Kent, "Mill Town Miracle," *School and Society*, 54:81-85, August 9, 1951.

⁵ Roger William Riis and Webb Waldron, "Fortunate City," *Survey Graphic*, 31:339-341+, August, 1955.

helped to change their attitudes, they may carry over into the new environment the very attitudes and habits that have been causing difficulty. For example, children who enter foster homes with unresolved conflicts are likely to express these in their new relationships. Consequently it is important to make every effort to help the child adjust in his present environment. Learning to get along with unreasonable people in difficult situations is part of the task of learning to live; this growth cannot be attained by running away.

There are situations, however, so inflexible, so unalterable, so complex and destructive that a child cannot possibly cope with them. Such a situation is portrayed in the film "The Quiet One." * Here the little Negro boy was violently rejected by his mother and cruelly beaten by his grandmother, who felt burdened by the responsibility for him. A change in environment was clearly indicated. Even in the favorable environment of an institution where expert psychiatric and counseling service was available, it was many months before this boy achieved a new orientation to himself.

Some large towns and cities are rich in social work resources. With these agencies the school should work closely. The first step is usually to appoint a committee to obtain information about available agencies and summarize the significant facts about each. The following is one page from such a survey made by a committee in one school system:

THE _____ CLINIC

Dr. _____
Medical Director

Dr. _____
Psychologist

Miss _____
Chief of Social Service

To make referrals, contact Miss _____

The _____ Clinic is supported by the _____ Community Chest. Clinic services are free. It is primarily for children in the metropolitan area. The age limit is eighteen. Children of every race, religion, and economic status are accepted.

The chief function of the Clinic is to deal with problems having their roots in attitudes and feelings of the child which result in either antisocial or withdrawn behavior. Speech disorders and special learning disabilities are also treated, and vocational guidance is offered. The Clinic does not accept cases in which the dif-

* *The Quiet One*, 16mm. sound film; 67 minutes. Produced by Film Documents, Inc. Distributed by Arhena Films, 165 West 46 St., New York 19, N.Y.

ficulty is primarily mental retardation. However, members of the staff are always ready to talk with teachers and principals about cases in which there is retardation, so long as the behavior is of concern to the school. In this way they can determine whether they can be of service, or whether some other agency should be contacted.

The Clinic works with both the parents and the child. The responsibility for coming must rest with the parents. For this reason, it is desirable that anyone wishing to refer a child should first tell the parents about the Clinic as a resource available to them. *Before this is done*, the Clinic would appreciate having the referring person discuss the problem briefly over the telephone; if the principal or teacher wishes, an appointment will be made with a worker from the Clinic to discuss the situation in more detail at the school.

The Social Service Exchange, an over-all agency that keeps a record of every case contacted by any social agency, is a valuable service available in many large towns and cities. School cases should be cleared with this exchange by the principal, personnel worker, or a qualified teacher who has been assigned this responsibility. The exchange can acquaint the school representative with any previous history of a case, and thus avoid duplication of effort and some errors in counseling.

Another step is to arrange for personal contacts between representatives of the schools and representatives of social agencies. An example of this helpful exchange of ideas comes from Hartford, Connecticut. The Director of Guidance invited representatives from the Y's, the Scouts, and other group work agencies to meet with some of the school counselors and teachers. The group work agencies were eager to learn what the schools were doing and how they could best reinforce and supplement the school's contribution.

Teachers may learn much from members of group work and case work staffs who are highly trained in group work techniques and counseling. The agencies should arrange for teachers to observe skillful leaders in action, and to have representatives from social agencies conduct workshops, demonstrations, or discussions for groups of teachers.

Here we must emphasize again the importance of having well-qualified workers to deal with complex personal problems. Well-intentioned persons without training may do harm.

Even persons who have training, but lack innate kindness and an understanding of why children and young people behave as they do, may intensify the difficulties of the persons they want to help. Counseling can be good or bad, helpful or destructive.

TEACHERS' RELATIONS WITH PARENTS

Parents are a most important resource. Through their years of intimate contact with their children, they have gained understanding that teachers could not possibly acquire from their more limited observation. For the developmental history of the child as well as for understanding of present home conditions and parental attitudes, the teacher must turn to interviews with parents. These can be conducted at the school or, better still, in the home. If both home and school conditions are familiar to both teachers and parents, they can work together to create the total environment which the child needs; they can pull together, rather than pull apart.

The following interview between a new teacher and the mother of a seventh grade pupil illustrates how the sympathetic approach of the teacher enabled the mother to speak with unusual candor.

Buddy had acquired a bad reputation in the school where Miss Miller taught. In fact, the principal had decided to expel Buddy, but Miss Miller, knowing that Buddy was about to enter her grade, persuaded him to give the boy another chance. The chief complaints which Miss Miller heard from all sides were that Buddy had no idea of discipline, refused to do homework on general principles, and was "sassy."

Before the new term opened Miss Miller went to see Buddy's mother and the interview ran as follows:

TEACHER. Good morning, Mrs. Cary, I'm going to be Buddy's teacher next year and I thought I would like to come in to see you before school starts.

MOTHER. Come right in.

TEACHER. I imagine you know, Mrs. Cary, that the principal has decided to keep Buddy in school after all.

MOTHER. Yes, I heard that. I only hope he will do better.

TEACHER. Can you tell me a little bit of what seemed to be the trouble? I'm new here and have heard nothing except that he doesn't seem to like school too well.

MOTHER. No, I can't. I have done everything I could think of and

it isn't as though he were stupid. When he is interested he can do all right.

TEACHER. Yes, I heard that he is interested in farming, isn't he?

MOTHER (*with pride*). Yes, he won a prize at a 4-H club exhibit for the best crops and he got recognition for the pig he raised too.

TEACHER. That's wonderful for a boy his age. Why is it, do you suppose, that he doesn't take to school?

MOTHER. Well, I don't know really. It just seems that he doesn't want to mind the teacher.

TEACHER. Was that true of all his teachers—or were there certain ones he didn't get on with?

MOTHER. Oh, it's not that he doesn't get along with them. He likes them well enough outside of school. It's just that he doesn't know how to mind.

TEACHER. Is he the same way at home? I imagine sometimes you must have trouble making him mind here.

MOTHER. Well, yes and no. He is perfectly nice and he does take good care of his garden and helps with the milking every day, but if he doesn't want to do anything, nobody can make him.

TEACHER. You know, if you and I could get together on this and sort of study out why it is he doesn't mind maybe we could help him to like school better.

MOTHER. Certainly, I would like to know. Well (*embarrassed pause*) . . . maybe I shouldn't tell you this . . .

TEACHER. Sometimes little things about a boy's life at home help so much in understanding him at school.

MOTHER. I guess I don't mind telling you. It is our fault too, I think. His father doesn't believe in whipping him, so Buddy knows he can get by with anything. Sometimes I will tell him something and then his father tells him differently.

TEACHER. I can see how that would make it difficult for you.

MOTHER. Yes it does, and sometimes he just carries on like a baby almost—if there's something he wants badly he'll cry and if there's one thing his father can't stand, it is to see him cry.

TEACHER. His father must be very fond of him.

MOTHER. He is that all right, but it seems like he doesn't take enough responsibility. He wants me to bring up the boy, but he will not stand behind what I have said.

TEACHER. Could you tell me the kind of things that Buddy balks at—maybe something that happened just a little while ago?

MOTHER. Oh, it is always the same. He likes to go fox hunting with the men at night and they don't come home until two or three o'clock in the morning, or he wants to sit around at the store and talk with the men and I don't think that is good company for him.

TEACHER. I certainly agree with you.

MOTHER. Yes, he hears all kinds of talk and they like to make fun of him, although he doesn't seem to mind. He likes it.

TEACHER. When Buddy says he wants to do something like that and you tell him "no," what happens?

MOTHER. Well, like I said, he'll go to his father and then . . .

TEACHER. Do you think, perhaps, Buddy likes to think of himself as a grownup and feels that nobody should be telling him anything?

MOTHER. I don't know. I don't think so. He seems to want to be like a child lots of times. He likes to be in the kitchen and help me and he asks what we think about everything.

TEACHER. That couldn't be it. At least it doesn't seem that way. On the whole, do you think Buddy is a contented child, or do you think he is fretting about something?

MOTHER. I think he is happy, as long as nothing goes contrary to the way he wants it, but as soon as you cross him it is all over and he is unhappy.

TEACHER. Is that right? From what you say I get the feeling that he just hasn't understood that sometimes there are things that one has to do whether one wants to or not.

MOTHER. Yes, that's it exactly.*

From this point on the interview turned into a discussion of the various ways in which Miss Miller and Buddy's mother might cooperate in the future. The mother welcomed the suggestion that they have further interviews.

This interview makes concrete some of the most important aspects of teachers' relations with parents: (1) instead of coming to give the mother advice, the teacher appealed to her for help in working with Buddy; (2) the teacher was sympathetic and understanding; she did not criticize or blame the mother in any way; (3) she suggested that they work together on the problem; (4) she showed interest in the boy's achievement—his 4-H Club prize; (5) by following the leads and clues which the mother gave she obtained, without seeming to pry, important understanding of the parent-child relations, the methods of discipline, and the boy's home activities; (6) she avoided the pitfall of taking sides with any member of the family; and (7) she left the way open for further contacts.

In cases in which the parent talks freely, the teacher gains a great deal of understanding without having to ask questions.

* Ruth Strang and Latham Hatcher, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*, pp. 155-157. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1943.

He can be nondirective—listening, feeling with the parent, and otherwise encouraging him to think about his child's behavior in his own way.

In other instances, the parent does most of the talking, but in a compulsive way—as though he has rehearsed his grievances many times without coming any nearer to a solution. If such a parent is to be helped, the interviewer must break into this closed circle of thought and call his attention to aspects of reality which he is ignoring. Merely listening in such a case is not likely to release tension; it may confirm the parent's harmful habits of thought.

It is hard for teachers not to blame parents who are obviously blocking a child's growth. But negative criticism does more harm than good. Parents need to be understood. All normal parents really want to do what is best for their children. They are not "problem parents" because they want to be. Parents' behavior is rooted deep in their experiences. Serious illness, uncongenial or incompatible marital relations, lack of social contacts, thwarted personal ambition—the repercussions of any of these may seriously affect a child's development.

Recognizing how much parental attitude and example influence children's behavior at school, teachers will not become annoyed by a child's hostility, aggressive behavior, or lack of social responsiveness. They will not take the child's behavior personally.

The child who is well adjusted to school is usually the one who has had fond parents. They have treated him with respect and given him responsibilities that he was able to fulfill at each stage of his development. They have loved him for himself rather than for his accomplishments and made very clear that their disapproval of his occasional undesirable behavior did not mean disapproval of him as a person. They have praised far more often than they have criticized. If he has limitations or physical handicaps, they have recognized them and made adjustments to them, while in other respects treating him as a normal child and helping him to be as attractive as possible and of service to others.

Among some groups of parents the tendency to push chil-

dren beyond their capacity is more common than the tendency to neglect them. For example, one little girl has been told by her parents that she is a genius. They occupy every minute of her time with educational activities. She is unpopular with other children, and with adults, whom she often disconcerts with her intrusive and thought-provoking questions and answers. She seems to be full of nervous energy and is often too preoccupied to eat. It was not until she developed severe outbursts of temper directed against her parents, her baby sister, and objects in the house that the parents realized they needed expert help and took the child to a psychiatrist. He wisely concentrated his attention on the parents and has done much to help them in the rearing and understanding of children.

Another ambitious mother created problems in her children by her overanxiety about them. The fact that neither child was exceptional was a threat to her life plan. She said of one child, "I want to make something unusual of him." When she described the kind of person she wanted him to be, it became evident that this concept was an extension of her own personality. She did everything for him except to let him be himself. Although she was able to tell other mothers about approved methods of bringing up children, she was incapable of applying these methods in her own family.

Parents like this often try to speed up a child's development, not realizing that it is important that children go through each of the natural stages of growth at the appropriate time. Overprotective parents sometimes satisfy their own emotional needs by not letting their child grow up. This attitude frequently makes children overdependent, immature, unable to relate themselves to other persons.

Many teachers do not appreciate the terrific personal limitations under which parents work. In addition to the limitations imposed by changing patterns of family life and fluctuations in economic conditions, there are also the limitations that each one of us gradually comes to impose on his own personality. And it is these limitations, constituting what parents feel to be the faults and deprivations of their own lives, that they want their children to avoid. The teacher, who can see so clearly what is best for the child, is prone to forget that

what the parent sees in the child is the patching up of the parent's own life. It is only when teachers become aware of this tendency that they understand how it happens that they can discuss a child so logically with the most pleasant parents—and yet never get anywhere. In many instances, child guidance involves parent guidance.

Meetings in which parents and teachers work together help both to grow in their guidance responsibilities. Lectures, even when given by able and interesting speakers, leave much to be desired, probably for the following reasons: the meetings are often late in getting started; the lectures last so long there is insufficient time for discussion; the topics are so diverse that they do not produce any cumulative effect over the year. These objections can be met by planning a more unified series of meetings focused on child development. At such meetings, combining short lecture, guidance or mental hygiene films or plays, or forum with discussion, the audience is stimulated to participate. Other features might include pupils' participation in the program, parents' visits with teachers in the classrooms, and teachers' visits to homes. Joint parent-teacher sponsoring of trips, book reviews, study groups, and social meetings also contributes to the guidance of students.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The teacher-counselor is like the hub of a wheel from which radiate relationships with the school counselor, specialists employed by the school, the principal, and other teachers. Beyond this circle are resources in the community that supplement the school's work with individuals and with groups. All work together. By coordinating all available services, the school is able to help every student attain his full stature as a person and as a citizen.

Questions and References for Part One

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What guidance or personnel services did you have in elementary school, high school, and college? What essentials of an effective personnel program were lacking?
2. Describe the student personnel program in a school in which you have taught or expect to teach. What conditions in the school and in the community make an effective program of personnel work difficult to develop? As teacher or as principal, what specifically would you do to improve these conditions? How would you discover community resources and use them more fully?
3. Give examples from your experience and from your reading of ways in which serious maladjustment was probably prevented by early guidance.
4. How can a teacher who is not in a position of authority convince the administrator that more time is needed for counseling?
5. How can a principal interest more of the teachers on his staff in taking a more active part in the student personnel program?
6. How can a superintendent help principals and teachers develop an adequate personnel program in all the elementary and high schools of a county?
7. What should the teachers' college do to prepare prospective teachers for the opportunities for guidance which they will meet in their first teaching jobs?
8. Why have some guidance programs failed?
9. What should be done to help a child make a good transition from his

home to his first year in school? From elementary school to high school? From high school to college, other educational institutions, or work?

10. Interview several young persons who have recently left school to go to work. Find out what difficulties they have encountered, what guidance proved helpful, and what guidance they wish they had had.

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Part Two

THE TEACHER'S VARIOUS ROLES

We never know how high we are
Till we are called to rise;
And then, if we are true to plan,
Our statures touch the skies.

The heroism we recite
Would be a daily thing,
Did not ourselves the cubits warp
For fear to be a king.

EMILY DICKINSON

4

Guidance in the Classroom

Teachers should spend half their time studying their pupils as individuals, and the rest of their time doing what that study shows to be desirable and necessary.—

HENRY C. MORRISON

The philosophy of teaching expressed in the above quotation makes guidance of individuals an intrinsic part of classroom procedure—not an “extra.” By knowing each student, the teacher can meet the needs of his class in various ways: through his personal relations with students, expressed in a nod of approval or a casual but constructive comment; through guiding their interaction in group discussions and committee work; through providing for independent study and individual instruction. In these and other ways he can help them discover and develop their special interests and abilities.

The interaction in a classroom affects the kind and amount of learning that takes place. For example, in a class in which a wide range of reading ability was represented, the teacher read Kipling's story of “Rikki-Tikki-Tavi.” This story was too difficult for many of these pupils to read for themselves but they all enjoyed listening to it.

After writing the title on the board, the teacher said, “Rikki is a mongoose. Does anyone know what a mongoose is?”

Stan spoke up: "It is a very small animal that likes to eat snakes."

"Where do we find them?"

"In India," Stan said.

"I thought Stan would know," said the teacher, "because he has lived in India."

Stan needed this recognition. It helped him to feel he was a contributing member of the group and improved his status with the other members.

After reading the story the pupils either wrote a short book review telling why they liked or did not like the story, or dictated their comments to the teacher. This provided for individual differences in ability to write. One boy, who was a non-reader and poor in all the communication skills, made no effort to write. The teacher noted this and took the book to him. She asked him if he would like to draw something in the story that interested him. When he still hesitated, she showed him some of the illustrations in the book, and he went to work. The next day she said, "First, I'm going to pass out the pictures of a cobra and a mongoose that Stephen drew, so you can all see just what they look like." The spontaneous praise of Stephen's pictures helped to build up the self-confidence he so seriously lacked. Later she chose him to work with her, while the others were reading independently. During all the periods of this class there were many similar examples of skillful guidance while teaching. Much effective individual guidance grows out of the content of the class.

To fuse instruction with guidance the teacher should (1) know the abilities and backgrounds of his students; (2) understand as much as possible about what they are doing, how they are doing it, and why they are doing it; (3) be sensitive to their responses during the class period; and (4) be alert and ingenious in making the interaction within the group serve individual needs and contribute to group goals or purposes.

THE FIRST COMMANDMENT — "KNOW THY STUDENTS"

Knowledge leads to understanding. One teacher said, "I thought John was just lazy, until I found out about his long

hours of work every day at home; then I realized that he was too tired to learn."

Another teacher made this comment: "I did not know whether Peter couldn't or wouldn't do the work of his grade. But when I began to study his mental ability, I found that he was much brighter than his school work indicated."

Many teachers in elementary school, high school, and college ask this question: "How can I know my students individually when I have five classes daily with about forty students in each?" One high school teacher answered this question successfully. Over the semester she increased her understanding of each of her students in the following ways: When a new class came to her, she observed them as they came into the room—one pupil was the center of animated conversation, others talked in pairs, some straggled in alone, one came late and took a seat in the back of the room although seats in front were available. The teacher, after introducing herself and telling a bit about her own interests and background, asked them to tell something about themselves to help them all get acquainted. As they came up to the front of the room to speak she noted many things about each one—his general appearance, poise, vocabulary and facility in speaking, interests, and attitudes. Later she asked each one to fill out a card giving his name and address, occupation of parents, educational plans, reason for taking this subject, classroom conditions under which he learned best, and anything else he would like to tell her. This took only a few minutes and gave the teacher information she could use in helping certain students get off to a good start.

To find out how well they could read the text or reference books in her subject, she gave an informal test. This consisted of a selection of about a thousand words from one of the books that they would soon be reading, followed by the question "What did the author say?" and more specific questions to test their comprehension, interpretation, and application of the passage. In every class this informal test showed wide differences in reading ability. Some students obtained only a few scattered, and often erroneous, ideas from the passage whereas others, who read it just as quickly, were able

to write from memory a full, accurate, well-organized summary.

Her understanding of the students grew with daily observation. From their questions, answers, and contributions to discussion, their written compositions, and other kinds of creative work, she gained an ever clearer impression of their mental alertness and their individual strengths or deficiencies of knowledge and skill. When students were working together on reports or projects, she had a chance to observe their relations with their peers. When they talked with her, she obtained some indication of their relations with adults. Their responses to failure, to criticism, to difficulty were also significant indications of their emotional development. Most of these observations were never recorded; she used them at the time, and recorded only especially significant episodes and trends. All of this understanding was gained during the class periods. She tried to meet some of their emotional needs—for affection, recognition, status in the group—and helped them look for below-the-surface reasons for their behavior.

A few students in each class puzzled her. She felt the need for more information about them. This took some out-of-class time. In her free period or after school, she consulted their cumulative personnel records in the central file; she talked with their faculty advisers or homeroom teachers; she asked the nurse to tell her about their home conditions.

She also found time to talk with a few of her students individually while the class was working independently. Occasionally she asked a student to stop by after school for a longer interview. As her understanding of individuals grew, she was better able to meet their needs through class activities. When necessary, she consulted the student's teacher-counselor, or referred him to the guidance specialist employed in the school. Her efforts to grow in understanding were not a burden because they were an intrinsic part of her professional day.

A fuller discussion of the ways in which the teacher may gain an understanding of individual students, of the problem of how much of it he should record and in what form, and of the ways in which he may use it in the guidance of students and parents will be found in Part Three.

UNDERSTAND THE "WHY?" OF STUDENT BEHAVIOR

When a student is capable, cooperative, socially sensitive, happy, and keenly interested in school; or when he is restless, inattentive, noisy; when he is "lazy," careless, untidy, idle; when he shows off, acts silly, is disobedient; when he lies, cheats, steals; when he engages in masturbation or sex offenses; when he is shy, unsocial, unhappy, depressed, oversensitive, overconscientious—the teacher should ask, "Why?" Behavior is caused. It has been learned. It grows out of the individual's past experiences, present conditions, and hopes for the future. Whatever the behavior, it represents a kind of development; it is the resultant of interaction between the individual personality and all the conditions with which it is surrounded.

Similar Behavior, Different Causes. Instances of the same behavior may have many different meanings. Two students failing in the same subjects may need quite different treatment: one may improve after he has gained recognition as an athlete; the other may need to curtail his club activities so as to have more time for study. One shy student may blossom out when accepted in a congenial group; another may become more seclusive as the result of a premature attempt to take part in social affairs.

Success and failure in school work may have quite different meanings to different students. To one, success may mean keeping his mother's love or the good will of the teacher. To another, success may mean progressing toward the realization of his most acceptable self. Too often the natural course of growth is mistaken for maladjustment. Too often the seriousness of a symptom is judged by the extent to which it bothers the teacher rather than by the extent to which it will handicap the student now and later.

Behavior Viewed as Development. Human growth is a gradual unfolding from egocentricity to social concern. The infant is naturally self-centered, interested in his own body and in anything in his environment that contributes to his comfort and satisfaction. As he grows older his affection becomes fixed on his mother, who normally is the source of his well-being and

happiness. In his primary school teacher he often tries to find a mother substitute from whom he expects a mother's solicitude. After he has progressed through the primary grades, he develops an interest in those of his own sex and tends to form gangs and cliques. During adolescence he establishes relationships with the opposite sex leading eventually to marriage and family life. Whether the well-adjusted person marries or not, his interests reach out to persons beyond his immediate circle of family and friends; his sympathies may become world-wide.

At no stage, however, do the earlier interests completely disappear. Only when an earlier emphasis persists unchanged into the period when broader relationships should be established is retarded development indicated.

The emotional relationships between teacher and student are part of this developmental pattern. The normally maturing boy wants to identify himself with the masculine pattern—not with a woman teacher or with academic success, if members of his crowd consider it "sissy." To these boys, the teacher may point out the relation of school learning to masculine vocations, and give illustrations of virile men who have been scholars. The boy who forms an emotional attachment to a woman teacher, similar to his early feeling for his mother, may achieve academic success, but at the cost of inner conflict and rebellion arising from his feeling that he has surrendered his masculinity. The girl is more likely to identify with a woman teacher and to fit more readily and successfully into the academic program, unless she has rebelled against her feminine role or has developed an antagonism, which she transfers to a woman teacher. We do not know how many students have failed in school subjects because of inner conflicts arising out of their emotional relationship with a teacher.

Another view of development is equally important—the view that each individual should be helped to grow in his own best way. Each pupil should feel that he has a part in initiating his own learning activities and that they contribute to his becoming the kind of person he wants to be. If teachers thought of a child as a gardener thinks of a plant or a tree, they would pay more attention to providing conditions favor-

able to growth. Though this analogy is not perfect, since the child has within him many more diverse potentialities than a tree, the idea of providing an environment that will give the individual the best chance to develop his inner resources is fundamental to effective personnel work.

Best Ways of Gaining Understanding. One of the best ways to gain an understanding of the meaning of a student's behavior is through the case conference or the more organized and systematic child study method developed by Prescott.¹ Either of these techniques is most effective when each member of the group (1) contributes accurate, concrete, objective, and significant observations of the student, and (2) has the ability to make and follow through tentative hypotheses about the causes of the student's behavior. Often, as in the cases to follow in this section, some central factor such as feelings of inferiority, lack of affection, or conflict with parental views and intentions seems to be having a pervasive influence on the individual's adjustment.

Influence of Feelings of Inferiority. Feelings of inferiority have many manifestations, often disguised. Sometimes this feeling of inadequacy is expressed in apathy, lack of effort, withdrawal. Sometimes it may crop out in bravado and cocksureness—a pretense of superiority. It is frequently associated with rejection at home or at school and has its roots in early childhood experiences. A child who is rejected at home is likely to be rejected by teacher and classmates; it is the least lovable child who is usually most in need of love.

Signs of Need for Affection. When a child's basic need for affection is not met, he may react in various ways: by seeking affection from teachers, classmates, or out-of-school companions; by withdrawing from people; or by showing hostility toward the world in general. Following is an example of the last-named attitude:

An attitude of hostility toward the world in general was assumed by Peter, a red-haired boy of nine, who did not like his teacher or any of his subjects. He said he wished he could be in

¹ Staff of the Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel (Daniel Prescott, Head). *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1935

his brother's class because his brother liked *his* teacher. A Stanford-Binet test given when he was five years and two months old indicated a mental age of six years and four months and an IQ of 123. Here was a bright boy who was not doing well in school and who disliked his teacher. Recognizing that this child needed understanding, the teacher noted first that Peter was different from the other children. With most of them the teacher had friendly, happy relations. They seemed to like her and to like school. So far as she knew, she had treated Peter the same as the other children. But perhaps Peter should be treated differently; perhaps he had a special need for affection and recognition.

This tentative interpretation proved to be correct. At home Peter was disturbed by the quarrels between his mother and father. He was jealous of his father's relations with his mother and wanted to protect her. Moreover, he felt that his mother liked his younger brother better than she liked him. His father, too, showed a preference for the brother and gave money to him more frequently than to Peter. He had punished them both severely for engaging in sex play with a girl of their own age when Peter was approximately seven and his brother five. Peter's behavior made matters worse. He disobeyed his mother and was impertinent, especially when others were present. His mother told Peter that he was "bad" and talked about his "badness" in front of other people.

These were some of the home troubles that Peter brought to school. He came to school with feelings of insecurity and inadequacy, with a need for affection that the usual classroom does not meet. Change in home attitudes was of first importance, but this could best be effected by a visiting teacher or social worker. The teacher's part was to show Peter that she liked him as a person and to help him see for himself that he could make progress by using his good mental ability. After school or in a free period, she encouraged him to talk about his home relations. Thus he came to understand them better and to see why he behaved as he did. The next step was to try out these new insights in everyday situations.

Behavior Resulting from Conflict. Every individual experiences some conflicts between his more acceptable and his less acceptable self, and between the kind of self he is, the kind he thinks he is, and the kind he wants to be. These conflicts, unresolved, use up energy that might be channeled more constructively. The following is an example:

A high school boy whose mental ability, as established by several reliable intelligence tests, was in the highest quarter of his age group, was getting marks that represented failure or near failure in every subject. In a number of interviews, supplemented by a study of his cumulative records, several serious conflicts became

evident. There was a conflict with respect to his vocational plans because his strongest interest was in music rather than engineering, the vocation chosen for him by his family. His family's level of aspiration for him seemed so high that he felt hopeless about reaching it. Yet he was fond of his family and wanted to please them. He seemed worried by the discrepancy between the kind of person he wanted to be and the kind of person he thought he was. He had grown to think of himself as a person who was lazy and not very dependable.

In the counseling interviews, the worker tried to help the boy see himself as a likable boy who had good health and ability in sports and other fields, a sense of humor and a good mind, and the ability to succeed in college and to make friends. His negative qualities, too, were accepted as part of his total personality, to be modified if necessary but not to be worried about. That he had considerable insight into his own behavior was indicated by his saying, "I think everybody has to be stubborn and have some conceit. Wouldn't be able to take care of themselves if they didn't. Guess I give the impression of having too much, though."

The role of the teachers in this case was to reinforce this boy's idea of his more acceptable self. They continued to express their genuine, spontaneous liking for him and took an attitude of positive expectancy that he could, and would, do better. Recognizing that he had a good mind, they suggested challenging problems, from the solution of which he got real satisfaction. They gave him more opportunities for engaging in sports and social events, which made his school life as a whole more enjoyable. All this they did indirectly without making him or other pupils aware that he was being given special consideration or singled out in any way. By helping him gain a clearer recognition of his good qualities and by creating a slightly more favorable environment for their development, this boy's teachers helped him to reduce his inner conflicts and use his energy to better advantage.

Another kind of conflict, however, is challenging to the individual and necessary for his achievement and happiness. That is the conflict with environmental obstacles that threaten to prevent his best development. Without some challenging problems, he will lack the incentive to think critically and act effectively. The goal of guidance is not freedom from conflicts; it is increased ability to deal with conflicts and to avoid conflicts that might become overwhelming.

"ACCENTUATE THE POSITIVE"

Although teachers naturally direct their attention toward behavior that interferes with school routine and regulations, they would make more rapid progress by looking for the good in their students. Desirable personality trends thrive when they are recognized and valued. Teachers would learn a great deal by seeking the causes of admirable conduct. Why is this boy so cooperative and responsible? Why is this girl so constructive in her relations with others? How did they "get this way?" Why did Bill improve so much this year? By analyzing the conditions that produce desirable changes, the teacher could more often help to create similar conditions.

Even mistakes may be viewed positively. Instead of being irritated by a student's mistakes, the teacher may view them as an opportunity to learn more about how the student's mind works. There is a reason for errors. Sometimes a mistake stems from lack of background or from limited experience. Sometimes it arises from illogical thinking; often from an inaccurate use of the familiar in interpreting the unfamiliar; very frequently from failure to recognize expansion of meaning or shifts of meaning in words.

When a student makes a mistake, the teacher with the personnel point of view takes time to find out why. For example, when a child defined *museum* as "a place where fish are kept," the teacher instead of saying, "Wrong," asked, "Where did you get that idea, Helen?" It is fascinating for a teacher to sit beside a student as he thinks aloud about an arithmetic problem. It is enlightening—and often dismaying—to follow up a student's reading of a passage with the general question "What did the author say?" or with a request that he draw a picture illustrating the passage. Techniques such as these bring misconceptions out into the open—the first step in correcting them.

BE ALERT TO GUIDANCE OPENINGS

The teacher who knows his students and intelligently tries to understand their behavior is in a position to act wisely in

their behalf. Much of this guidance takes place in the classroom.

The teacher's opportunities for guidance while teaching may be summarized as comprising seven kinds of action:

1. **Using Personal Relationships.** Supply the kind of personal relationship that each student especially needs. One individual may need a permissive kind of friendliness; another, friendliness plus firmness; still another, the teacher's warm but objective affection. For example, when a boy who had been absent re-entered the classroom, the teacher, instead of mentioning the work he had missed and the makeup tests he must take, said, "Hello, Tommy, glad to see you back." Tommy's face lighted up at this indication of friendliness. In this brief moment, he was drawn back into the group and made to feel welcome.

Relationships may be detrimental as well as beneficial. The teacher is never a neutral influence. A few examples of undesirable attitudes and relationships should be noted here. By becoming aware of them, teachers may more easily guard against them. Occasionally teachers seem to be jealous of children whose talent is far above their own. The gifted child who thinks more logically and brilliantly than his teacher is sometimes subjected to a smoldering, unconscious resentment that distorts the true evaluation of his work. Sometimes, on the other hand, the gifted child is too much pampered by an admiring teacher. The mentally retarded child is often handicapped either by being branded as hopeless or being urged to attempt the impossible.

Teachers' attitudes toward certain acts such as stealing, lying, and sex offenses often make it impossible for them to consider the act from the standpoint of the child's future development. The great teacher has learned to relinquish his prejudices. Too often a temporary, impulsive lapse on the part of a student assumes distorted importance. This was true in the case of a boy who entered high school on a wave of popularity. He was president of his class and well liked by students and teachers. Toward the end of the year he was detected in a serious cheating escapade. His motive seems to have been merely a desire for adventure, for he did not use his

knowledge of the carefully guarded examination questions which he obtained. However, he was violently condemned by his parents and by the principal. He felt disgraced, and, during his remaining years of high school, never regained his initial prestige. He was not again elected by the students to any office.

The too-earnest helper may also do harm. The teacher who works most effectively with individuals is usually not widely advertised as a "helper." He does his work without display—without making the student conscious of being helped. One of the highest compliments a student can pay a teacher who has been quietly working with him is the remark, "Why, I solved this problem myself." Guidance is a subtle process of helping the individual to help himself.

The teacher who has experienced emotional deprivations and is dependent for his emotional satisfaction on his contacts with students often turns against students who do not appreciate his "kindness." He takes criticism personally. He misconstrues the normal adolescent desire to be independent as personal dislike or antagonism. Such a teacher is an unwholesome influence.

The dominant and dogmatic person tends to have a detrimental effect. Sometimes he insists that students conform to his preconceived pattern for them. He nags gifted children and attempts to force the reticent child into unsuitable social participation.

Some personalities unfortunately evoke antagonism. The specific words or acts or manners that "rub people the wrong way" are difficult to analyze.

2. **Building Self-Esteem and Competence.** Meet an individual's need for encouragement, social experiences, self-confidence, or reinforcement of his positive self-appraisal by casual comments during the class period. For example, a social studies teacher, in talking about individual differences, gave recognition to a shy little girl by saying, "If I tried my best, I couldn't make as good a poster as Mary's here." A little later, he remarked, "A few minutes ago Walter made an important point, which we should discuss further." Walter, who rarely experienced success in academic subjects, sat up a little taller

and concentrated harder than ever. He had made a point worthy of the consideration of the whole class! In another class a girl who was called upon to take part in a program said she did not know she was supposed to sing with the others but would do her best. The teacher commented that she thought it was fine of Beth to cooperate. In such simple, natural ways the teacher can build self-confidence and strengthen concrete standards of conduct.

The teacher can also do much, in a casual way, toward providing other kinds of experiences that a student needs. For example, a sixth grade child who tended to forget things, to be seldom ready on time, and to be negligent about assuming responsibilities was asked to prepare a fifteen-minute musical program. The child liked music and, at the appointed time, had three or four numbers prepared. It was clever guidance on the part of the teacher to use the child's keenest interest as a bridge to habits of responsibility.

A sixth grade boy, an only child, whose home environment had fostered extreme self-interest and disregard for others, was brought into a good relationship with other children through his interest in turtles. When the class was studying marine life, Clarence mentioned having some turtles at home. One of the pupils suggested that he bring some of them to class. The next day Clarence brought his turtles and told, in a fascinating way, how he captured them, where he kept them, what he fed them. Other children expressed a wish to have turtles for pets and Clarence was able to supply them at a cost of five or ten cents. Some of the children went to his home to see how the turtles were housed, and Clarence went to their homes to help them establish the turtles in their new quarters. The children who came to his home showed keen interest in his other pets and his many toys. In the beginning Clarence did not want them to handle his toys, but gradually his attitude changed, and eventually his home became a gathering place for the children of the neighborhood. His mother profited by this opportunity to observe other children. She was thus better able to help Clarence correct the mannerisms that had at first isolated him from other children. This teacher's sensitivity to the child's need and hobbies and her success in using his in-

terest as a natural means of increasing his social contacts made all the difference in the world in his social adjustment.

Knowing that one of her less successful junior high school pupils had a camera and all the equipment for developing and printing pictures, the teacher suggested that he take some pictures of the animals they were to see on their excursion to the museum. He was immediately interested. Later, using some of the enlargements he had made, he gave an excellent report to his group on "Wild Animals of India"—the first report he had ever given that held the attention of the class. From then on, he maintained a higher standard in all his work. Had not the teacher made use of her knowledge of his special interest and equipment, he might have continued to do mediocre work.

Another teacher recognized that an unkempt overage boy, who felt everyone was against him, needed friends and an opportunity to prove his worth. One day when he was absent she discussed with the class how they could make him a real member of their group. One little girl reported the next day that she had said "Hello" to him, and she added, "He has a right sweet smile." When he came back to school the group were friendly and sought his help in making a loom. After he had done a good carpentry job, the teacher said, "We really needed you, Will."

When he went to read a preprimer by himself, another boy joined him and they read it together. The teacher commented, "That's a good book, isn't it?" Will replied, "Yes, but it's a 'baby book.' I ought to read hard books." The teacher said, "It is an *easy* book, but it's a *good* book." Then she told him that everyone likes to read easy books sometimes. So he kept on with the easy books until, in a few months, he was reading third grade material. His attitude toward school and toward the class had changed greatly. He came to school clean and smiling. In these simple ways the teacher helped this overage boy to adjust to the group and to believe in himself.

Another example of the efficacy of meeting a student's immediate need and building his self-confidence concerns a twenty-one-year-old college student. The mathematics teacher in whose calculus class Jim was doing outstanding work was

dumbfounded to learn that he was failing or barely passing in his other subjects. His whole college record showed the same trend: of a total of sixty-eight credits, his eighteen A's were all in mathematics; his other grades were all very low. The mathematics teacher asked Jim to stop in and see him. In the course of the conversation, he said he wanted to be a teacher of mathematics—that was the only thing in college he really cared about. He insisted that he spent far less time on mathematics than on other subjects because he realized that a good general average was necessary. One of his fraternity brothers said it was true that Jim completed his mathematics assignments in a very short time and then devoted hours to his other subjects. This suggested a reading difficulty. Since his other instructors seemed to lack time to help him with the reading of their subjects, the mathematics teacher referred him to the campus reading center. Reading tests showed his comprehension rate to be less than two hundred words per minute. While appropriate for reading mathematics, this rate was much too slow for most other kinds of reading. After three months' instruction and practice in building up his repertory of reading skills, he was able to comprehend ordinary textbook material at about 350 words per minute. He apparently put this newly acquired ability to good use, for his midterm grades in history and English were much better than he had ever obtained before.

In each of these cases, the teacher discovered some special ability or interest which served as an opening wedge to better adjustment. "But," some teachers have asked, "what can you do when a student seems to be lacking in any special talent?" The answer is: discover or build one. Fortunately every individual has some potentiality that can be developed. It may not be music, art, mathematics, or high intelligence, but some gift is there. It may be a hobby, an ability to excel in some sport, mechanical ability, or simply a genuine friendliness. When asked to list the gifted children in her class, one rural teacher said, "All my children are gifted." She had the habit of looking for exceptional qualities in each child.

3. *Individualizing Instruction.* Many examples of guidance through the individualization of standards, assignments, and

all other aspects of instruction could be given. One of the most interesting is the account given by Nicholas Murray Butler of his own high school experience:

There being no chemical laboratory and no physics laboratory in which to make experiments, Mr. Ridenour gave me a copy of the *Manual of Geology* by Professor James D. Dana of Yale, then recently issued and a book which quickly became a classic in its field. He told me to take this book and go out on each Saturday and study the geographic features of the surrounding country. He instructed me where to go and what to look for and what to read. He added, "In this way you will get scientific method and that is what you must have. The facts of science are constantly changing, but if you get its method you will know all that is necessary in your general youthful education." To me, this was a very interesting and a very useful experience.²

Many teachers of large classes find time for guidance through personal comments on the student's written work. One teacher made the following comments on notebooks of ninth grade students:

Shirley: I should like to see two things: (1) that you read more books, and (2) that you make longer comments on what you do read and see.

Peggy: Your notebook looks very untidy—as if a chicken with inky feet had walked through it. I like your comments on plays.

The most helpful comments are definite, positive, and appealing. Teachers' corrections on themes can help the student to dramatize his relationship with his reader and to improve the accuracy and effectiveness of his statements. They are a most important form of guidance in learning.

4. Guiding Daily Learning. Help the student to make a better response to a situation than he could have made unaided. This kind of help is of the utmost value in teaching him methods of meeting somewhat similar situations in the future. For example, one seventh grade teacher tried throughout each period to find out where each pupil's thinking went wrong, and to aid him in the process of answering the question correctly. In an exercise in identifying certain parts of speech in a sentence, the teacher gave the hesitant pupil help through questions:

² Nicholas Murray Butler, "On Getting a Good Old-Fashioned Education," *Columbia University Quarterly*, 23:74-75, June, 1936.

"To whom does *them* refer?" "What part of speech is it?" Step by step the teacher helped each pupil to think through the problem, saying, "Good," after each correct response. At the end, she made an encouraging remark such as, "When you got straightened out, you knew exactly what to do." In a high school English-social-studies class, one boy was required time and again to fight for his points and to back up his generalizations with specific examples. From this demonstration both the boy and his classmates learned how to base their reasoning on sound facts.

In many daily school activities, the teacher has opportunities to help students find the best way out of a situation that might otherwise be too difficult for them. He gives them just enough help so that they can handle it themselves.

5. *Sharing Educational Goals with Students.* The teacher may describe the vocational and avocational values of his subject in order to clarify its meaning, use, and purpose. The light that guides the teacher should illumine the students' path also. Why should not a teacher say to a class at the beginning of a new academic year: "We teachers want every one of you to make the best of himself this year. We want those of you with high scholastic ability not to be content with just 'getting by.' We want those of you who have been working in industry or on farms this summer to prepare yourselves this winter to be more skillful and intelligent in the kind of socially useful work you can do best. We want you to get the scholarships you're working toward and to take an active part in worthy school enterprises."

6. *Discussing Common Problems.* Discuss real problems that are of immediate concern to the students, even though they are unrelated to the subject scheduled. For example, in a senior history class two boys were handling their textbooks carelessly. The teacher spoke to the boys about the way they were handling the books and one of them jokingly replied that the city would provide others.

The teacher took the boy's remark as a theme for discussion. The students discussed who made up the "city." The conclusion was that all residents made up the city and that the city's bills were paid by those who lived there and paid taxes. The

students then figured what it cost the city to educate each student in the high school. They listed such items as tuition, books, supplies, upkeep of buildings, and the like. From this discussion the idea was developed that careful handling of materials and wise use of the advantages offered were essential, if the cost of education was not to become needlessly high. They further developed the idea that waste or careless use of material was, in the last analysis, costing their own parents money. The sentiment of the group seemed to be that they owed it to themselves and their parents to make the most of their opportunities. The teacher had the facts ready because she had observed this sort of careless handling of school property on other occasions and was awaiting a natural opportunity to discuss the problem.

7. **Following Through on Student Needs.** Recognize needs that require further study outside the class. It is often impossible for a teacher to take time in class to talk with students whose need for adjustment he has recognized. In these cases he may find time after class, during a free period, or before or after school. A few examples will show some of the ways in which teachers have followed up their classroom observation:

Lillian was crudely and cruelly labeled by most of her teachers as "generally no good," "lazy," "flighty." One teacher, however, looked at her through more hopeful eyes. She noted that Lillian was pretty, tastefully dressed, well-mannered, far from being stupid. She saw in the girl the makings of a charming and useful woman. During a class discussion, the teacher got the impression that Lillian was very fond of children. Conversation confirmed this impression. Lillian expressed an interest in settlement work, and it happened that this teacher was able to obtain a summer position for her in one of the large settlement houses. She liked the work, and the settlement workers liked her. Here were some fine people who thought she was a good deal better than "no good." She was rehabilitated in her own regard through the efforts of a classroom teacher.

John, aged fourteen, a freshman in the technical course, ended his first term with a record of failure in every subject except music. He was puny, pallid, undernourished, underdeveloped, and of limited intelligence. The most casual observer could see that he needed less academic pressure and more physical care. His teacher was able to make a contact with some friendly people on a farm

who agreed to board him in return for the light chores he could do. He was released from school before the end of the term and had a long summer in the country. In September he made a fresh start in school with marked improvement. A second summer in the country really put him on his feet, and he began to make an acceptable academic record.

Helen, a girl of fifteen, above average in intelligence, was a model student in the classroom, and far above the rest of the class in most subjects. All the teachers were pleased with her achievement. However, she was unsocial; she ignored her schoolmates and went home immediately after school. Gradually small adjustments were made that resulted in her better social and emotional development.

Her favorite teacher talked with her about her reasons for not joining in any school activities or becoming friendly with her classmates.

After obtaining information about her attitude toward her classmates, her home relations, and her developmental history, this teacher presented Helen's case at the regular monthly meeting of the high school staff. They began to see her all-round development rather than just her academic achievement. It was agreed that she needed more group experience, remedial exercises in posture, and assistance in science and mathematics.

Like all new pupils, she was asked to have a general medical examination by her family physician, who would send the report to the school. He said that moderate physical exercise would be beneficial.

From a composition she wrote in English class on "Some Games I Have Enjoyed," the teacher learned that Helen liked volleyball and swimming. A volleyball game was scheduled in which teachers and upperclassmen were to play. Helen was persuaded to join the pupils' team. Other volleyball games were held, and her classmates discovered that Helen was "good fun."

The teacher suggested to the mother that she let Helen choose her own clothes. Her own choices would be more attractive, as well as in line with the styles the other girls wore.

Helen was encouraged to invite members of her class to her home and show them her curios from the Far East.

A boy classmate offered to teach her to skate.

She was elected to a minor office on the school paper.

At the teacher's suggestion, the church asked her to play the piano in the Beginners' Department and to teach a class of small children.

She attended a church summer camp.

In the fall she returned to school happier and quite determined

to take part in the activities of the school and to make her own decisions.

Helen graduated from high school and went to a university, where she made a satisfactory social and academic adjustment.

Note the steps taken in this case: checking on her physical condition; gaining understanding of her interests and abilities; locating the strains and pressures in her family relations; developing her social skills; and helping her to gain independence from her mother's domination without a sense of guilt. Procedures such as these should be part of the developmental guidance program for all students, rather than delayed treatment for cases in which problems of social adjustment have already developed.

DISCIPLINE VIEWED AS GUIDANCE

Although the word *discipline* appears to be vanishing from the pages of books on guidance, teachers are still bothered by rudeness, inattention, defiance, lying, stealing, and similar behavior in their classes. Many teachers are still worn out at the end of each day from their efforts to cope with unruly students.

A comparison of classrooms today with classrooms a hundred years ago, however, gives cause for optimism. Horace Mann described a school in Boston about 1840 where the motto was "Fear, Force, Pain." In that school 328 separate floggings were reported in one week. Certainly no one today would prefer teaching in that system to struggling on with his still imperfect applications of mental hygiene principles.

The following descriptions of how disciplinary problems have been handled in groups and individually will help other teachers to deal with discipline in the guidance way.

Good Discipline in Two Schools. Several modern schools for boys who have shown delinquent trends have demonstrated that apparently uncontrollable behavior can be changed for the better. To know that entire classes of disturbed youngsters can be turned into useful citizens is an inspiration to any teacher. The Montefiore School in Chicago, which accepts only cases of truancy, misbehavior, or serious delinquency, en-

rolls about six hundred boys ranging in age from ten to seventeen, with a median IQ of 80 to 90. They attend the school for six and one-half hours daily, five days a week, twelve months in the year.

A thorough study is made of each boy when he enters the school. He is given complete physical and psychological examinations, achievement and special diagnostic tests. After the boy has expressed his own preferences in an interview, he is placed in the group which seems to be most appropriate for him. If it later appears that he would be better suited to another group, he is readily transferred. Academic work fills approximately three-eighths of his school time, laboratory and shop work four-eighths, and recreation one-eighth. The school has varied and extensive shop and laboratory equipment, including facilities for music, dramatics, and art. Availability of necessary materials and equipment for constructive work is very important. On its staff are a dentist, a doctor, and a nurse, who are employed full time, and a psychiatrist employed half time. The teachers have excellent professional training and experience.

As about 25 per cent of the boys entering Montefiore School have reading disabilities, special instruction in reading is given. In one month they generally make three months' progress. Having discovered that they can read, they begin to take more interest in their other subjects. As their satisfactions increase, their truancy decreases. The staff has raised attendance to 90 per cent, largely by making the school a place where pupils can succeed. Over 80 per cent of the boys make good when they return to regular school.

The school and the Guidance Clinic work closely together. The special workers make a thorough study of each boy; the rest of the staff does what that study shows to be desirable and necessary.

Similar principles are applied in Public School 37, New York. The enrollment consists of boys who have been truants, led destructive gangs, fought with other children, assaulted teachers, kept classrooms in an uproar. At least half have had court experience. Their school achievement ranges from 5A to 8B. Many nationalities and races are represented.

The guidance procedure with a new pupil is as follows: He is interviewed by a psychiatrist and by a psychologist and given any tests that promise to be helpful in clarifying his behavior. A home visitor calls on his family. At a case conference attended by the teachers, principal, and the guidance specialists, the causes of the boy's difficulties are discussed, his abilities and limitations are recognized, and a suitable program is planned.

The day's program features a forty-five-minute "adjustment period" when the teacher is free to talk with boys individually. The curriculum includes study of the American home and how the United States grew. Woodworking and printing shops prepare boys for more advanced work at vocational high school. The principal teaches a class on "Social Character and Vocational Guidance" in which pupils learn how to make themselves more eligible for the kinds of jobs they want and can hold successfully. There are practical courses in nutrition for pupils and parents that lead to improved meals at home. A speech teacher helps pupils with speech defects. In assembly periods pupils are inspired by able speakers, and are given a chance to express their own opinions in a town-meeting type of session once a week. In innumerable ways they are given responsibilities for the school: taking charge of the midmorning milk, running magic lanterns and moving-picture machines, keeping the school clean. When asked about his good record, one boy said, "Well, I never was in a school before that needed me."

The spirit of the school, of course, is another important influence on each new pupil. To his surprise, he finds the pupils interested and courteous. If he "starts anything," it does not make the impression he expects. The others good-naturedly tell him to "cut out the kid stuff." Gradually he learns to remain steady and competent even under stress.

The principal attributes the successful rehabilitation of about 90 per cent of these boys to "wisely applied psychology, seasoned with tact and warm human sympathy." She says that the changes in her boys depend on "treating them like people entitled to respect; making them feel well liked and wanted; finding something at which they can be successful; and dis-

covering some way in which they can serve others." * This is the essence of sound guidance procedure; it should be available for all children and young persons.

Good Discipline in Individual Cases. The same principles work in individual cases. Innumerable teachers have proved for themselves the effectiveness of understanding each individual, of providing him with suitable work, and of showing genuine respect and affection for him. The following accounts illustrate these principles translated into sound methods of discipline at camp, in school, and at home.

Anne appeared to the camp as a "problem girl." It was her second season there. She had not acquired the camp spirit, but enjoyed considerable prestige among some of the girls. At this camp there were no rules except those needed for safety. Anne did not appreciate being treated as a responsible person in the community, and boasted that she was going to "put it over" the counselors this year. Her counselor was given this information before Anne arrived.

The counselor's first step was to become acquainted with the girl and to try to direct her energies and ingenuity into constructive camp activities. The first day Anne was elected chairman of an interest group. This demanded time and energy. Later, elected to membership on the council, she became aware of the ideals of the camp. The council chose Anne as chairman of the last meeting, in which these ideals were interpreted to the group. The counselor gave help at strategic points, saw that needed references were available, assisted Anne in acquiring the techniques of committee work, and spent an hour the last day in helping her to formulate her ideas. At the end of the last meeting an elderly man introduced himself to the counselor as Anne's father. He had driven down to the camp to take her home. He was surprised and delighted at his daughter's poise, her ability to express herself, and the point of view that she had presented. He felt that the days at camp had been of inestimable value to her. They had been, indeed. All her boasted escapades had been forgotten; she had thrown her whole self into worthwhile projects.

The second example is the case of a boy who entered the third grade of a new school as a "behavior problem."

Jackie was easily overstimulated and poorly adjusted to group work. His IQ was about 120, and he was already doing superior work in fourth grade arithmetic. He was, however, below average

* Elsie McCormick, "They Can Be Made Over," *Survey Graphic*, 34:127-129, April, 1945.

in reading and writing. No physical difficulties were revealed by the medical examination. When Jackie was still a baby, his father and mother had been divorced. Since then he had lived with his mother, brother, and sister. Although the mother was well-to-do, she gave the impression of being burdened by the care of her three children. Jackie had never seen his father and had had practically no contacts with men. In school his behavior was so disturbing to the other children that the teacher thought it necessary to isolate him from the group.

At this stage of almost complete rejection at home and at school Jackie came into contact with the science and playground teacher, to whom he took a liking. Although there was no organized guidance program in the school, this teacher, Mr. O'Brien, took on Jackie as his counselee. The boy seemed to sense that Mr. O'Brien was "all for Jackie," even though he disapproved of some of his behavior. It seemed to Mr. O'Brien that Jackie was behaving as he did in his classes because he was disliked by his classmates, never received anyone's approval or recognition, and felt alone and insecure.

With the cooperation of the other teachers, Mr. O'Brien began to try to meet these needs. An entering wedge was driven when Jackie, after studying the steam engine in Mr. O'Brien's laboratory, made a report on it in the social studies class. The report was so good that someone suggested he submit it to the school paper. It was accepted and published. After this first experience of success, Jackie wrote other articles, some of which were accepted by the school magazine. He spent more and more time in the activities of his group and took part in class discussions. There were ups and downs, but growth in interest, achievement, and social relations was evident. It is not likely that this progress would have been made had not Mr. O'Brien, at the psychological moment, become Jackie's teacher-counselor.

The father in *How Green Was My Valley* showed a similar understanding and sympathy. The little boy, Huw, had stolen out of the house to attend the secret meeting his brother was leading on the mountain. He climbed back into his room, dirty and half frozen, and was confronted by his father.

"Where have you been?" he asked again, and shaded his eyes with his hand. He was still dressed, and sitting on my bed.

"Up the mountain, Dada," I said, though it is a mystery to me to this day how I got it out.

"Did I tell you about minding your own business?" he said.

"Yes, Dada," I said.

"Do you expect your mother to clean that mess you are in?" he asked me.

"No, Dada," I said.

"Go downstairs and clean yourself and be sharp about it," he said.

Off I went like a black-beetle, dripping all over the floor, expecting a clout that would stretch me senseless. But nothing happened. . . .

It is strange how you will do a job with more than ordinary care when you have a fault upon your conscience. It is almost as though you thought to make your industry a form of penitence.

"Come here, Huw," my father said at last.

I put down the cloth and stood in front of him, hanging my head.

"Why did you go up the mountain when I told you not?" my father asked, and to my surprise his voice was quite ordinary, and not angry a bit.

"I wanted to help Davy, Dada," I said.

"Help Davy?" my father said. "And how about your poor Mama? What would have happened to her if you had come to harm? Did you stop to think?"

"No, Dada," I said.

My father lifted me into bed and put the clothes over me, and patted me on the head.

"You will be a man soon, my son," he said, "and you will find all the troubles you are wanting in plenty. Plenty, indeed. I am afraid you will have it more than us, now. So till then, be a good boy and think of your Mama. She is the one to help. Good night, my son. God watch over you."

"Good night, Dada," I said.

I was so glad he had gone before Gwilyn came in through the window. I fell off to sleep at once then.

But thinking back now, I hear my father's voice as he spoke then, so sad and soft, as though he had known and seen.*

The father handled this problem of discipline with sympathetic understanding of the motives underlying the little boy's action and with his future conduct in mind. Usually stern, he nevertheless acted as a humane person should, taking the whole situation into consideration. He gave the child a chance to repair the trouble he had made, respected the child's motive, and suggested two things—thinking before acting and considerateness for his mother—that would help to direct his behavior in the future. Most important of all,

* Richard Llewellyn, *How Green Was My Valley*, New York, 1910, pp. 33-34. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

he showed the child that he loved him; even though he disapproved his behavior.

On the college level also, discipline cases can be handled in the guidance way. In one girls' college, freshmen who broke rules were referred to the student court. Members of this court considered it their duty not to mete out penalties for offenses, but to re-educate the offenders. They explained what the rules meant and how they had been made by the students themselves. Instead of depriving a freshman of privileges, popular upperclassmen introduced her to campus activities which she enjoyed. In this way she learned that participation in the student activity program was more fun than going her own way and that cooperation with the student court brought greater satisfaction than rebellion against its rules. Cases in which the breaking of rules seemed to be a symptom of serious personality problems they referred to the dean of students.

Influence of the Teacher's Personality. If the teacher has a need to dominate others, if his feelings of personal inadequacy are strong, or if he is afraid that if he gives his students an inch they will take a mile, his discipline is affected. Students are quick to sense insecurity in the teacher and the lack of authority that comes from immaturity and a feeling of inability to cope with the situation. A teacher who has real respect for himself and for his work is the most important element in good discipline. A sense of humor, too, goes a long way. One teacher, when asked what she did to promote industry, contentment, and considerateness for others in her class, said, "Nothing, I guess, except to laugh with them more than usual."

The Meaning of Discipline. For different persons, discipline has diverse meanings. To some it still means meting out punishment for certain offenses; to others, it means achieving self-direction and self-control. Other views of discipline lie between these two extremes. It is not necessary or desirable for the teacher to "make the little devils do as he tells them or to let the little angels do just as they please." The following concepts seem to be essential in the modern view of discipline:

1. Discipline, in the sense of learning to live with others and to maintain an orderly way of life, is a natural and necessary feature of civilized life.

2. Its aim is self-control and self-direction toward worthy goals.

3. It focuses attention on the future, and is concerned with the past only as it helps one to understand the present and the future.

4. It results in the reorientation of the individual and the redirection of his energy into constructive channels—useful work, good relationships with others, service, wholesome recreation. It helps him to move toward his most acceptable self—the kind of person he wants to be.

5. It is personal; it seeks the causes of undesirable behavior and takes into account the varied factors that have given rise to it. The modern view recognizes that undesirable behavior springs from unfavorable conditions, as surely as good development results from conditions that bring out the best in a person.

Children and young people are not very different from adults. They do not like to be criticized negatively, ridiculed, nagged, "pushed around." They want to be given the benefit of the doubt. A librarian learned that a boy had stolen a book from the library. When he came back with the book, she said, "The library is here for you to use. But there's a right way and a wrong way of using it. The right way is to get a library card and take books out on it." She then showed him how he could make out an application and get it properly signed, so that the card would be ready when he wanted it.

Whenever discipline and delinquency are discussed, there are some persons who blame the children and young people; some who condemn education; some who say it is the parents' fault; and others who speak of a delinquent society. All four factors are involved. The normal individual must take a large share of the responsibility for his life; the home and the school must teach him a better way of life than he would have evolved without help; society must provide conditions that make the good way of life possible. Delinquent behavior may be explained from the psychoanalytic point of view as the re-

sult of psychological conflict. It may be attributed, as Aichhorn suggests, to failure on the part of the family or the school to help children build adequate ego-ideals. Plant^{*} describes juvenile delinquency as one way in which the child deals with a reality that does not provide warm and inviting outlets for normal growth and development.

No single cause, however, has been found to be the determinant in all cases. According to Healy and Bronner, disturbing family relations, unsatisfactory school life, inner conflicts, adolescent adjustments, and environmental influences may all contribute to making a child delinquent. However, we know enough about the causes of delinquency, complex as it is, to do good preventive work.

In recent years, some educators have minimized the influence of ideas on conduct. Yet deliberation, "acting on thinking," the control of action by the higher brain centers, play a part in determining conduct. Healy and Bronner, from their study of brothers and sisters in the same family, one delinquent and one non-delinquent, concluded that "while we discover emotional disturbances to be such a great incentive to delinquent behavior, yet the part that the ideational life plays cannot be neglected."^{*}

The school is in a strategic position to prevent delinquency. The juvenile delinquents flow from the school and in some cases return to it. Reform is expensive and ineffectual as compared with education.

Procedures That Have Worked. The large majority of discipline problems may be treated by guidance rather than by administrative technics. If the teacher is convinced of the value of the guidance way of dealing with problems of behavior, he will be more likely to persist in his application of sound mental hygiene principles, even though success is not immediately evident. Although each student, of course, should be treated in accord with his individual needs, the following

* James S. Plant, "Who Is the Delinquent?" in *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, Forty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, pp. 14-29. University of Chicago Press, Chicago 37, 1948.

* William Healy and Augusta Bronner, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment*, p. 135. Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut, 1936.

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procedures have repeatedly brought good results in personal development and social adjustment:

1. Establish a relationship of mutual respect and confidence; the student should feel that the teacher is "for him, not against him." This does not mean that standards should be scrapped; instead, they should be made reasonable for the individual.

2. Study with the individual his home, school, and neighborhood setting; his previous trends in behavior; the meaning that his acts have for him; the relation of his ability to his achievement and his school program; his special interests and wishes; his goals and purposes; his companions, his relation with teachers; the immediate conditions that gave rise to the present problem; and other relevant factors. One of the main purposes of such study is to call attention to his assets and to find the causes of his undesirable behavior.

3. Reward genuine improvement with discriminating approval of the kind that is important to the individual. Force, sarcasm, and fear have been shown by clinical study and experience to be very undesirable as incentives to learning. Punishment may make a child resentful, sullen, aggressive, unresponsive, apathetic, and hostile to the situation as a whole and to the persons involved. Many children admit that their bad behavior was a way of "getting even" with the parent who punished them. Case studies have shown that punishment is ineffective, or even dangerous, when it involves social isolation from a desirable group; when it is inconsistent—weak at first and later severe, or strong at first and then weakly abandoned; when it seems unreasonable or unjust to the individual; when it is dissociated from the behavior to be changed; when it is administered by one whose authority is not respected.

4. Play the part of a "builder-upper," not a "tearer-downer." In other words, increase the student's faith in his ability to "make good." This attitude is the antithesis of the common scolding and "talking to" employed by many teachers and administrators. The latter procedure strengthens the individual's idea of himself as "bad," or "lacking in self-control," or "hopeless," or "dumb," or "incorrigible." It is well known that a child tends to accept adults' evaluation of

him and to live up—or down—to it. This is true of groups as well as of individuals. One teacher attributes the success of her classes to the fact that she tells a new group specifically about the good things she has heard about them. She tells the class that is leaving how well the principal and other teachers think of them. Students try to live up to reasonable expectations for them.

5. Help the student to work out a plan by means of which he can satisfy his needs in approved ways. This plan usually involves handling certain relationships with others—parents, brothers and sisters, teachers, or classmates—after he has come to understand them better. The plan should not be complicated, but capable of achievement in easy steps.

6. Reinforce the student's new insights and his plan for improvement by controlling conditions that may lead to failure. For example, talk with other students and teachers, and with parents as opportunity offers, so that they will play a constructive part in the plan. Often it is necessary to change the group's point of view toward discipline and help them to find satisfaction in the success and happiness of others.

7. Help students to understand the influence of the group on their behavior—how members may reinforce or counteract individual tendencies, how an autocratic atmosphere may affect members, how a group may meet individual needs for security, affection, independence.

Truancy is not always "a bad boy running away from a good school, but is often a good boy running away from a bad school." By providing suitable work and play, and opportunities for service, a school may avoid many problems of discipline. Students are best disciplined by responsibility, by absorbing interests, by challenging tasks.

Under favorable conditions the individual has no need to resort to unsocial behavior. When teachers and students become co-workers in achieving common goals, rebellion and aggressive behavior seem out of place. Children of all ages recognize the need for limits, for control, and even for severity at times.

The teacher should realize that some students need to be treated with special care. Criticism that would be stimulating

to a well-adjusted person reduces the social security and self-confidence of an oversensitive student. The method of treatment properly varies not only with each individual, but also with the same individual under different circumstances.

Obviously the kind of discipline here described requires more thought, more time, more tact, more psychological background, more skill on the part of the teacher, than control by fiat and fear. But from the standpoint of individual development, it is worth all the effort. If, under crowded classroom conditions and other stress and strain, the teacher is unable to make progress with certain individuals, he may refer them to the dean, the counselor, or other personnel worker in the school or community. If a complex family difficulty is uncovered, the school personnel worker may seek the assistance of the visiting teacher, if one is employed in the school system. The visiting teacher, in turn, may refer the case to another agency that can give the specialized welfare, medical, or psychiatric service needed. Thus, beginning with the teacher and his all-important preventive work, all the resources of the school and community are brought to the assistance of the child or adolescent who needs to develop self-discipline.

Teachers need to have faith that these procedures work. They need conviction that, in the long run and from the standpoint of the best development of the individual and the group, love is more potent than hate or indifference, that discerning praise is more efficacious than punishment, and that knowledge of the individual and the causes of his behavior is better than ignorance. Without this faith and conviction, teachers are likely to become discouraged at the ups and downs of human behavior that occur even in the best-regulated classrooms.

GUIDANCE OPENINGS IN SUBJECT FIELDS

In addition to the occasions for guidance that are offered to every teacher, there are special opportunities in each subject. Each subject makes a contribution to certain vocations and avocations. Some subjects lend themselves especially well to work with individuals and small groups. Others have

marked therapeutic values. A few, such as "life adjustment" or "social living," consist *primarily* of guidance content. Even the content of a subject has unique guidance value.

In English. Through literature that is true to life students can learn to understand themselves and other people. Literature "holds a mirror up to nature." It furnishes vicarious experience that helps a student to sense how persons feel when they act in certain ways; it uncovers motives; it helps adolescents to understand family relationships. For example, William Saroyan's *The Human Comedy* is rich in interpretations of people, their daily lives, their struggles, their relations to one another, their spiritual qualities. From four-year-old Ulysses to seventy-year-old Mr. Grogan, a panorama of contemporary life is presented. Saroyan brings a kind of reassurance, somewhat sentimental perhaps, to disturbed adolescents restless to know what life means in these days. He presents technics of living, as well as a philosophy of life. Mrs. MacCauley's answers to Ulysses' questions about his father and Marcus, and her handling of the breakfast-table situation between Homer and Bess are only two of many pointers to good family living. Mary O'Hara's novel, *My Friend Flicka*, combines appreciation of the spaciousness of the out-of-doors with the story of how a boy overcame his inadequacy when he was given a pet to love and care for. To prospective parents, the story suggests that love and understanding help children to grow up well. Both of these books have been admirably translated into motion pictures, which carry their message still more forcefully to the much wider audience of those who cannot or do not read books. Many other books and short stories may be used in English classes to help adolescents develop better human relations.

English enriches living as well as deepening understanding of social relations. Reading may be an inexhaustible source of personal satisfaction. The development in English classes of reading interests that will carry over into adult life is a most effective kind of guidance in the wise use of leisure. No teacher can afford to be ignorant of or snobbish about his students' recreational tastes. He should accept his students where they are, use constructively the foundations they have acquired,

and build steadily and reasonably at a pace not too rapid for them.

Literature also furnishes an objective means of considering problems common to youth. Group discussions in an English class are provocative. Comments by classmates are often more effective than the teacher's remarks in clarifying adolescents' thinking. Here are only a few out of a wealth of examples: In discussing Octavus Roy Cohen's *The Dark Hour*, a boy who had had much personal trouble challenged the statement, "She experienced ecstatic joy which was, however, modified by the shadow of her past sorrow." He said that when tragedy comes into your life you can never be happy again. This was controverted again and again by his classmates, who gave numerous examples in real life and in literature of the fallacy of such a generalization. They refuted his arguments far more convincingly than the teacher could have done.

In a story by Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings, "A Mother in Mannville," the leading character is a boy in an orphanage. During a class discussion, a child callously remarked that the boy was really very happy there, and that his desire to belong to someone was childish. A girl who had been in an orphanage and was now in a re-established home contradicted this statement vehemently, and the class gave examples of everyone's need for affection and for the feeling of belonging.

Stories which tell of a girl who is overinterested in clothes, a boy who is sly, and other adolescent problems give students an opportunity to bring up their own interests, to see themselves in relation to others, and to set up criteria for their own behavior. "The Snob," a short story, by Hugh MacNaier Kahler, about a boy who was ashamed of his father, gave rise to a pertinent discussion of attitudes toward parents. Such discussions also give the teacher deeper insight into the needs of the group and of individuals. For example, after reading a story about an orphan, one girl said, "I can understand this story. I have lived in eleven homes and I've been adopted twice."

Moreover, the English teacher, the special teacher of reading, and the librarian can recommend to a student books

which deal with his particular problem. For example, Arthur Miller's play, *Death of a Salesman*, was given as a reference to a freshman who felt that his father misunderstood him, and wanted him to become a doctor against his own wishes. The boy identified with the character of Biff, the son in the play who fights against his father's dream for his success. By reading this play and helping to dramatize some of its scenes in class, the student gained a clearer idea of his own father-son relation.

Discussion and oral readings and reports increase the student's ability to communicate his thoughts to others. He learns to take part in a friendly conversation, to contribute to a discussion, to stand up and speak before a group.

Dramatic productions meet individual needs for self-expression, self-reliance, and cooperation with others. Many plays such as Eugene O'Neill's *Beyond the Horizon*, Thornton Wilder's *Our Town*, and Roger Ferdinand's *The J. Threes* have special guidance value.

Most effective are plays written specifically with a guidance or mental hygiene emphasis.¹ Plays which the students themselves write and produce may also give insight into how people feel and why they behave as they do.

Through compositions the English teacher can gain insight into students' interests, goals, and values. If their writings are to have this value, their interest and cooperation must, of course, be obtained. If the teacher indulges in this kind of assignment too often, his class may feel as one youngster did when she exclaimed, "Miss King, if I have to write one word more about adolescence, I'll scream."

In response to the suggestion that they write about themselves and their age group, students have given teachers some significant insights into the way they are thinking and feeling, as in the following quotations from a number of different compositions:

¹ Nora Stirling, *The Ins and Outs*. New York Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association and the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York. Morton Jerome Weiss, *Guidance Through Drama: Six Guidance Plays to Be Used in Guidance Work*. Unpublished Ed.D. Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

A person judges himself by the way that other people treat him. If nothing much is expected of him, he gives nothing much. We are all naturally lazy, especially while we are trying our wings. A big factor in why we place such a low value upon ourselves is that all of us haven't someone to keep encouraging us and keep us going forward when we come to difficult problems. I feel every young person needs someone he admires and respects to help him become self-confident and help him respect himself as well as others. We are constantly being told we must prepare ourselves to take over the world when we get older. We are told that we won't be prepared if we don't work hard. Most of us know all that and because people are forever harping on the fact, they make us feel we haven't the ability to prepare ourselves.

When the parents are at home, they are continually finding fault with the children who begin to feel that they are not loved or wanted.

Most adults think of teen-age boys and girls as "children" and treat them as such. Instead, they should have adult responsibilities, that is, responsibilities that are taken for granted and for which they don't get any praise, as children do. Naturally it's a hard age to manage, but too many parents relax and feel that their job is done after children pass the very dependent stage. On the contrary, a parent's job is almost never over.

My family situation is, to use the vernacular, a "mess." Since I have two fathers and one mother, I ought to feel blessed, perhaps. It's a queer thing. I think I'd just rather have one mother. I live with my grandparents. I suppose that sounds funny with both of my parents living, but neither seems to want me.

I've been in seventeen schools in seventeen years, and am living at the present time with my mother and stepfather, while my brother is with my father and stepmother. This may seem quite complicated, but it is only the beginning of many entanglements. The love and care of my two grandparents has made me happy.

Because I am handicapped by poor vision, the doctors say that I can never go to college. This was a great blow to me.

When I was eleven years old, a great tragedy occurred. My father died, and nothing seemed to be right any more. Our friends don't come to visit us as they used to. My mother and I lead a quiet life and I am very lonely. I guess I'm just an escapist at heart. That's why I enjoy reading as much as I do. Thank God for books! That's all I have to say. I lead such a common, unromantic life without them.

My family has been somewhat broken up. The divorce courts took my father away, the Navy took my brother, so all I have left is my Mom. We live alone and like it.

In October I met Dick for the first time. After that things went pretty smoothly with me in the other girls' eyes because at last I had a man. Silly, but it's the way most girls judge another girl.

Reading essays that contain comments of this kind is one of the quickest ways of getting acquainted with individual students. While making the necessary corrections on these compositions, the teacher is simultaneously acquiring a background for the guidance of each member of his class. Needless to say, he must hold these confidences inviolate.

Students' comments on the books they have read are also enlightening. Of course, the teacher cannot always tell, even though a student obviously believes what he has written, just how a book has really affected him. Some discount must be made for sheer verbalization and for the influence of the comments he has heard or read. However, expressions such as the following are surely significant:

The actions of my family when the boy friend drops in just burns me up, but from *Kitty Foyle* I've learned just to grin and bear it. It's best just to keep calm at the time and tell the family what you think later.

Although Scarlett O'Hara was a girl, I found I had some of her faults: impatience, a bad temper, and procrastination. [Boy]

The Years Are So Long left me wondering whether children after their marriage should support their parents. I finally concluded that they should, no matter what the sacrifice. This is one of my problems now.

The Old Maid shows a child hurting her mother. I could see myself dropping innocent remarks to my mother that cut underneath. Now I understand better what mothers have to endure from inconsiderate children.

Before I read *Mrs. Miniver*, I felt that I had the queerest reactions to things and that no one could possibly feel the same as I do.

Poems for Modern Youth made me think about the world as a sort of perpetual miracle and led me to become more interested in people and everyday life.

On Borrowed Time showed that death can be nice and gentle. Before this I thought it was the worst thing that could happen to a person.

Often I think about many things that nobody seems to like to discuss or even think about. So I keep them to myself and think about them when I'm alone. But several times in books I have

found the author describing the feelings and thoughts of characters which are similar to my own, and they become real people to me. In this way it almost seems as though I had talked over my troubles with someone and were relieved of them. This is why I enjoy reading so much.

Comments such as these can scarcely fail to deepen the teacher's understanding of the students in his classes.

A study of general semantics in English class may lead to an understanding of the emotional potency of words. Students may improve their own personal adjustment and ability to communicate with others by thinking through the meanings of abstract words and by recognizing tendencies to identify the word with the object, to forget that "there is always an 'etc.,'" and to generalize from one specific instance. They should know that a word has more than one meaning, and these diverse meanings are built from individuals' experiences.

In English classes a student sometimes reveals an unusual ability in the language arts that suggests vocational possibilities. In these cases, the teacher should guard against jumping to the conclusion that the student should enter the field of journalism. He may submit samples of the student's work to a person competent to judge their professional potentiality. But consideration must be given to many factors other than ability. Granted that the ability has been established, the student must consider the qualifications necessary for various jobs in the field, the required preparation, remuneration, opportunities for advancement, and probable openings.

The following account shows how an English teacher provided opportunities for the development of special abilities:

In a small high school that had no specialist in personnel work, the English teacher noticed that Phyllis had exceptional ability in writing. First he became better acquainted with her. From the school records and from conversations, he learned that her score on the group intelligence test was very high; that her vocabulary was amazing; that, because of a broken home, she was living with a married sister; that she had no vocational plans and that she did not intend to go to college. The English teacher encouraged her to write. When a vacancy occurred on the school paper, Phyllis was chosen. In class she chose the more difficult assignments, with which the teacher gave her special help. When she asked about the field of writing, the teacher obtained from the librarian several

recent pamphlets on this subject.⁸ They also looked up colleges offering courses in journalism.

When her choice had been narrowed to a small college which had an especially good standing in the communication arts, and where she would be likely to make a good social adjustment, the question of finances arose. The English teacher was able to influence a local college club to award her a scholarship, which would give her time to adjust to college before attempting to carry on part-time remunerative work. In the fall she entered this college. The letters she has written during the first two years indicate that she has made friends and is developing socially and intellectually. She likes everything about college. She has become active in the college publications and believes that her "future is in journalism."

In these ways, the English teacher helped this girl to get a sense of direction and make progress that she herself had not realized was possible.

Certain subjects, notably English and civics, have been used in imparting knowledge of occupations. For example, one teacher made vocational choice the theme of several oral English periods. The students first listed all the occupations with which they were familiar. Each student next chose one occupational field in which he was interested and seemed to be qualified. Then he read books or pamphlets about it and also obtained information from someone engaged in it by means of an interview or a letter. The reports included a brief history of the vocation, a description of the kind of work it involved, an analysis of its advantages and disadvantages, an account of the training and other qualifications required, its compensation, and its service to society.

Although every teacher should teach students how to read his subject, the English teacher often takes special responsibility for students' reading development as well as for their personal development through reading. Since retardation in reading is frequently closely associated with emotional and social adjustment, help in this area furthers the student's total development.

Using the material and methods of his subject, the English teacher with the personnel point of view will fuse guidance

⁸ Lorine Pruette, *Working with Words: A Survey of Vocational Opportunities for Young Writers*. Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York, 1950.

and instruction. The two processes of "learning" his students and meeting their needs go on continuously in his classes. In individual cases he may follow up clues obtained in class and get help from other sources. Teachers of foreign languages have similar opportunities.

In the Social Studies. Like the English teacher, the social studies teacher has many opportunities for guidance. He *can* observe students and help them develop critical thinking and appreciation of others' points of view. He can frequently help them to relate themselves to the life of the local community and to that of the nation and of the world.

Many of the ideas gained in social studies classes are basic to understanding and making a good adjustment to the world of today and tomorrow. Through the study of history the student can see how motives like his own have led to events in the past; he becomes aware of the intermittent progress man has made. The social studies increase his appreciation of other nations and peoples and reinforce his devotion to the unattained ideals of democracy toward which we are striving. Through current radio broadcasts, newsreels, newspapers and magazines, general problems of democratic living become localized and immediate.

The students' own experiences should be brought into the social studies classroom. When students, through their first part-time work experiences, are feeling the impact of the world of work, teachers of English, social studies, or other subjects might well spend class time in helping them to interpret these experiences. For example, Mabel M. Riedinger⁹ obtained thought-provoking comments by asking her pupils to discuss and write about their work experiences.

In discussions of the proposition, "Every high school student should have during his high school course some commercial or factory work experience somewhat under school supervision," students said:

Some work is all right, but a full shift in the factory sure ruins a person's health. . . . You can certainly overdo it. When you

⁹ Mabel M. Riedinger, "Work Experience for High School Students." Unpublished Project Report. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936.

work long you get too tired to do your school work. They should limit the number of hours a pupil works.

The school should cooperate more with the students. The kids don't want to flick school, but if they go to school at 7:30 and have a meeting or something and don't get out until 1:30 and have to be at work at 2:00, they don't have any time at all to do other things.

In describing their summer experiences, the students gave a realistic picture of their gains and losses. The values for an individual depended on his health, ability, and other factors. The following was written by a senior boy:

I spent the summer working at the H—— Company. I worked forty-five hours a week six or seven days a week. I managed one of the stockrooms. I had two boys working for me. I like to work when I feel good, but when I'm tired or sick, I don't want to even lift a finger. I like my job and I think everyone should work at some time during his or her four years in high school, because it gives you an idea of what it's all about and why you should go to school and learn everything you can so that you don't have to spend the rest of your life performing a job that any moron could do, simply because you don't have enough education. I learned quite a bit about how to get along with people, especially with your employers, which will come in handy later, and a good deal about people in general.

In autobiographical essays students have also evaluated their work experiences. Two months before graduation, a senior girl wrote:

I am working thirty to thirty-one hours per week on a switch-board giving out credit ratings written in a code, which must be learned to comprehend the job. I'm crazy about the work, though it does little to further any real academic education. . . .

As far as influencing my interest in school is concerned, I must admit that I have not the same interest I had during my freshman and sophomore years. Also, plans for the future I find bothering me more than ever before in my life.

My jobs, especially my previous job, affected my health to a great degree. While I was working, going to school, and all in all using up all my stored-up energy, I developed anemia and I am still under the doctor's care. I am in much better condition now. I blame this run-down condition partly on the job and partly on general lack of sense in taking care to get enough sleep.

The job that I hold now has really helped instead of hindered me. I find myself living by a time scale—so much for study; so

much for relaxation, that is, reading or knitting; and so much, usually eight hours or more, for sleep at night. This regularity has done me a world of good.

My job very definitely ties me to the community. I have learned more about business concerns, and just what the city is made up of than I ever knew before. I really feel that I have learned much to make me a better citizen. I like the responsibility that is handed me as I go in the office. It surely affects my ability to accept further responsibility as a citizen.

Many students have mentioned their relations with other people and discussed what they have learned from this opportunity to work with adults:

Contacts with older people on the job may be good for the student if they are the right kind of people and may be bad if they are the wrong kind of people.

It's a good thing for students to get in contact with older people, because they learn what older people know and pick up a lot of good things from them.

After his first work experience, a wealthy boy wrote:

And I learned a lot about people; a lot of these uneducated fellows in the factory are fine fellows, good-hearted; I like them lots. I got a big kick out of learning about people because I had never associated with anyone outside my own class before.

These quotations show how easy it is to obtain in a class significant information about students. It is more difficult to take the next step and use the understanding thus gained in the guidance of individuals. The teacher will find in the student's written work leads to follow up in personal interviews. If facilities are available, he may refer certain pupils for further help.

A still more direct contribution to vocational guidance is made in a unit on occupations, frequently included in the regular social studies course of study. This unit usually comprises a broad picture of the different ways in which people earn a living, a study of the occupations most appropriate to the group, a discussion of the interdependence of workers in meeting society's needs, and individual exploration of one's own occupational interests and abilities. Trips to local industries are most educational if students focus their attention on the worker, discuss beforehand what to observe, and afterward summarize what they have learned.

Considerable time may be spent in clarifying concepts such as *democracy, capitalism, culture*. Books such as Edgar Dale's *How to Read a Newspaper*, the United States Office of Education pamphlet *How to Read the News*, Alfred McClung Lee's *The Fine Art of Propaganda* are helpful in combatting propaganda and crooked thinking. The conflict between ideals and actual practice should be faced. Ideals can be made clear and concrete in social studies classes; they can be practiced in class activities; and they can be shown in operation in the local situation. The "Modern Problems" course in one high school goes still further: it helps students to identify and help solve community problems by actual participation in civic affairs. This experience is a stepping stone to adult responsibility; it is guidance in making the transition from irresponsibility to responsibility in civic affairs.

The social studies are well adapted to guidance through the group. Committee work, discussions, oral reports, and individualized instruction, all offer rich opportunities for recognizing and meeting individual needs and for guidance in critical thinking on real problems.

Ways in which the social studies teacher can meet the emotional needs of adolescents are described in an article¹⁰ by Bruno Bettelheim, Director of the Orthogenic School of the University of Chicago. Bettelheim makes the point that if the student understands the forces that are causing him to behave as he does he can deal with them more adequately. He gains a certain degree of security from being able to handle his problems intellectually before he is expected to handle them emotionally. Bettelheim concluded that

the greatest service the social-studies teacher can render to his adolescent students is to educate them to a critical understanding of themselves and the society in which they live. . . . Through his own relationship to his students he can indicate what true interpersonal relationships are, and he must do this although the students are unable to reciprocate.¹¹

Correlating the class work with students' expressed interests and abilities is a most effective way of meeting their needs

¹⁰ Bruno Bettelheim, "The Social-Studies Teacher and the Emotional Needs of Adolescents," *School Review*, 56:585-592, December, 1948.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 592.

during any class period. For example, one high school pupil was a discipline problem—always clowning, never doing his assignments, failing in his work, disliked by teachers, and at best only tolerated by other pupils. He insisted on reading and analyzing people's handwriting, thereby distracting attention and causing disturbance in class. The history teacher gave an assignment centered on this interest: the boy would analyze the handwriting of some eminent historical figures, and the rest of the class would read up on them to see how good a job he had done. The boy became interested and read more than any other member of the class to test his own hypotheses.

In another class one child was teased because of a foreign accent. The teacher initiated a project dealing with the country of his birth and called upon him to help the class with the correct pronunciation of names and places, and to give firsthand information which they could not find in books. This increased his self-esteem and made him an accepted member of the group. It is often amazing what large returns accrue from a little attention to individual needs!

In *Commercial Subjects*. The commercial teacher seems to be particularly conscious of his vocational guidance opportunities. Leaders in the field of business education recognize the importance of guidance. Nichols¹² has stated that any sound business training must include a "truly functioning program of guidance." Dame, Brinkman, and Weaver¹³ have stressed the importance of (1) helping eighth grade pupils to select a suitable program, (2) lowering the present high mortality rate in shorthand courses, and (3) securing accurate information about the number of clerical workers, bookkeepers, typists, and other commercial workers who can be placed each year. These are special opportunities for guidance in the commercial curriculum: selection of suitable courses, imparting of vocational information, counseling of individuals, pro-

¹² Frederick G. Nichols, "Some Observations on Vocational Guidance in Commercial Education," in *Guidance in Business Education*, Ninth Yearbook of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, pp. 22-32. Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, Philadelphia, 1936.

¹³ John Frank Dame, Albert R. Brinkman, and Wilbur L. Weaver, *Prognosis, Guidance, and Placement in Business Education*. South-Western Publishing Company, Cincinnati, 1914.

vision of part-time work experience, and placement and follow-up in a full-time job.

Since success in carrying the commercial course and in entering and progressing in the field depends on the appropriateness of the initial choice of vocation, it is at this point that the commercial teacher does his most strategic guidance. He is responsible for enrolling in his classes only those students who have the interest and ability to succeed in commercial courses and later in business. He should interview each prospective student to obtain information on his early vocational interests, the kind of work he has done with greatest satisfaction, the subjects that he has mastered and failed, liked and disliked. An inventory like the *Kuder Preference Record* may uncover or confirm interest in the clerical field and give clues to other interests. Clerical aptitude tests may likewise give clues to a student's ability to succeed in different kinds of clerical work.¹⁴ As these tests are still in the experimental stage, the results should be compared with students' subsequent achievement in the course and on the job.

Later he may try out his aptitudes in one or more of the following jobs: stenographer, bookkeeper, general clerk, or salesperson. With the aid of the local business firms and industries, the State Employment Service, youth-serving agencies such as the YMCA, or social and civic clubs, commercial students can study employment trends in this field, especially in their local community. Such a survey of the community's needs for workers will incidentally disclose part-time openings in typing, filing, general office assistance, and other commercial lines.

More extensive information on occupational opportunities may be presented during class periods and related to the content of commercial subjects. A special course in business occupations may be offered as part of the business curriculum.

Selected sources of information about occupations may be displayed on bulletin boards or in a corner of the commercial room or library. A file of information about jobs in this field may be gradually built up by a committee of students work-

¹⁴ See clerical aptitude tests recommended by Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Ave., Chicago 10, Illinois.

ing under the direction of the commercial teacher or school counselor. Methods of gathering and presenting occupational information are described in detail in Gertrude Forrester's *Methods of Vocational Guidance*.¹⁵

By the time high school pupils have reached the senior year, most of them know the vocational aspects of their future work. Gaps in their knowledge may be filled by reports, talks, dramatizations, oral interviews, and motion pictures. These supply realistic information about the vocational world the pupils are about to enter.

Commercial teachers also give considerable attention to individuals. For example, one student in a shorthand class became very much interested in shorthand reporting. Knowing this, the teacher brought to class an article by Louis A. Leslie, entitled "Shorthand as a Profession," and another by Charles Currier Beale, "The Silent Man," which gave information about the shorthand reporter's job: the qualifications, training, opportunities for advancement, remuneration, and so on. The student gained additional information from the daily papers. She was able to interview a court reporter, who gave her more specific facts. The teacher also passed on to this student the references to court reporting in the magazine *The Gregg Writer*, to which he subscribed.

Guidance of individual students in learning commercial subjects is further illustrated by the following short interview held by Miss Bates, a commercial teacher, during a free period. Shirley and the teacher were alone in the room. Shirley had been excused from her homeroom for this conference. Shirley did excellent work in "Shorthand I," but in "Office Practice" was a poor student and a discipline problem. Before the interview Miss Bates obtained additional information from the Dean of Girls and the cumulative record: Shirley was an adopted child, now nineteen years old. Two years ago she had had a "nervous breakdown." Last July, her mother died. Her IQ on the California Test of Mental Maturity was 109.

MISS BATES. Sit down, Shirley, and visit with me for a few minutes. I'm interested in your difficulty with Office Practice I, when

¹⁵ Gertrude Forrester, *Methods of Vocational Guidance, with Specific Helps for the Teacher of Business Subjects*. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1951.

you are doing such excellent work in Shorthand I. Shorthand is a much more difficult subject than Office Practice. I don't know how to explain it. I thought you might explain it to me.

SHIRLEY. Miss Bates, it's because I don't know as much as the other students in Office Practice. They all know how to type much better than I, and are smarter than I am. In the school I came from we didn't learn to type as well as you do here. I always used a typewriter with letters and here I must use blank keys. I don't know my letters without looking.

MISS BATES. That certainly would make it difficult for you in Office Practice. Do you find Shorthand I easy?

SHIRLEY. Yes, because I started out with you and the class.

MISS BATES. Since you'll need typing in both Office Practice and Shorthand classes, do you think it might help if you used your activity period three days a week to practice typing?

SHIRLEY. I can't, I need that time to do my homework.

MISS BATES. Can't you do your studying at home?

SHIRLEY. No, I must do the shopping after school, cook dinner for my father and sister. I also do all the housework.

MISS BATES. Doesn't your sister help with the housework?

SHIRLEY. No. My father says he's spending so much on Mary's education that she should be left alone to study. He thinks she is brighter than I am. Maybe I should drop out of school. (*Begins to cry.*) If I don't pass all my subjects I won't be in school next month anyway. I'm nineteen and my father says if I fail anything I must just stay home and work. (*Continues to cry.*)

MISS BATES. Shirley, I don't want to see you stop school, either. You would make a good stenographer and they are very much in demand now. We can leave the typing part of Office Practice for a while and begin work on a calculator. Would that be all right? Then we will work on the typing later.

SHIRLEY. I will get along fine—you'll see—on anything that you start me on from the beginning, like other students.

The role of this teacher was to try to understand why this girl was failing in one of her subjects and to make any adjustments possible in her own classes. But she also had other guidance responsibilities—to be sure Shirley had made the best possible choice of vocation and courses, and to recognize serious emotional and family problems. The Dean of Girls, who had already interviewed this pupil several times, could possibly help the father gain some insight into his daughter's needs.

Many commercial teachers take considerable responsibility for the placement and follow-up of their students. Thus in-

structors keep in close touch with the business world and *note deficiencies in their graduates' training*, which suggest modifications in the content or method of their courses. For example, a teacher whose students were not successful in getting placed learned that they had lost speed in typing by not having had a course in typing during their last year of school. Since placement is an exacting and time-consuming task, commercial teachers can hardly be expected to assume all the responsibility. However, by cooperating with the State Employment Service or the school's placement bureau, if there is one, they can keep in touch with employment conditions.

The commercial teacher is also concerned with the personal qualities necessary for success in business and industry. Employers list as essential neatness in work, attention to detail, honesty, industry, perseverance, adaptability, loyalty, and ability to get along with people. These qualities may be developed through commercial courses. According to one estimate 90 per cent of the failures to hold jobs are due to personality and character factors.

In Science and Mathematics. The most common guidance problem in science and mathematics is minimizing failure: either by selecting students who can succeed in courses, or by modifying courses so that enrollees can succeed, or both. Two high school teachers met this problem in the following manner: During the first marking period they offered approximately the same work in all the divisions of plane geometry that they taught. By the end of the first marking period fifteen to eighteen pupils were *failing*. They were puzzled and discouraged. A large proportion of them were in one class, and it was possible to transfer most of the others who were having difficulty to this section. The teacher who taught this section slowed up at once, prepared simpler, more detailed explanations, and began remedial work with the students having the most serious difficulty. Their discouragement gave way to hope and new confidence. Failure turned into success. All but six were meeting the minimum requirements of the subject by midyear; all but one by the end of the year. Just good instruction, perhaps. But this procedure exemplified the personnel point of view.

The relative stability of the universe, as revealed by science, may give some students a sense of security; friends may be fickle, but the stars and the seasons are dependable. Mathematics likewise helps to orient students in time and space, to give them a spacious view of the universe, and to dispel superstitions.

Science also helps students develop sound methods of thinking and problem-solving in personal and social areas: health, conservation of natural resources, improved farming and stock-raising, control of communicable diseases. Actually, applications to the daily lives of the students are too often neglected. The members of one biology class showed many evidences of poor posture, malnutrition, and skin defects; yet not once did the teacher relate the subject matter of biology to these personal problems.

In the science laboratory the teacher may discover the learning difficulties of individual students and show them how to learn more efficiently. Having established a friendly relationship, he is likely to be consulted about other matters. As groups of two or more students share responsibility for conducting experiments—sometimes long-term experiments such as study of the effect of diet upon the growth of rats—they learn to work together for a common end.

A large number of vocations require background in science and mathematics. With these the teacher should acquaint his students at the beginning of the course. This vocational motivation increases interest in the subject for many students.

In Health and Physical Education. Because of the informal nature of its activities, physical education offers many opportunities for constructive personal contacts. In locker rooms, on trips, on the sidelines, and in other situations the coach or physical education teacher can talk intimately with individual students. Small groups and teams develop wholesome friendships and interpersonal relations.

Physical education also offers many opportunities for guidance in fair play, social relationship, and leadership. Suggestions or questions that direct a student's attention toward a better way out of a situation are immediately translated into action. Practice thus follows closely on the heels of an insight

or a good intention. A game of roll-ball, an elementary form of baseball, will serve as an illustration of guidance in daily activities. The teacher lined up the two teams of eight- and nine-year-old children and reminded them of the few simple rules. Whenever she felt a child needed encouragement or the group needed to be made aware of certain standards she commended a good play. When an error was made, it was corrected on the spot either by the player who made it or by the ruling of the group. Sometimes the teacher interpreted the reason for a decision: "Yes, George, it was a force out; the ball reached there before you did, and it wasn't necessary to tag you." An error resulted in no embarrassment or feeling of guilt. There was only a feeling of "I'll not do that again," or "I'll do better next time." The teacher set a good example in courtesy and respect for others. When she threw the ball so poorly that the catcher missed it, she said, "I'm sorry, John. It was my fault." The teacher knew her pupils and enjoyed them. She seldom missed an opportunity for guidance.

Many adjustments can be made to meet individual needs. For example, Jim lacked interest in sports despite pressure from his father to follow in the footsteps of an older brother who was a sports hero. Jim was becoming a discipline problem and was rejected by his group. The physical education teacher appointed him *manager* of the baseball team. He was reluctant to accept this position, but worked at it conscientiously. He was encouraged to study baseball scoring with the help of his father, and acted as scorer for the team. Once he served as reporter on an out-of-town game. Through these activities he developed an interest in sports. His father's attitude toward him improved, as did also his school work and his relations with his classmates.

Another boy, interested in photography and sports, had some ability in the former field but none in the latter. He was also a behavior problem. After he was appointed team photographer and his pictures were prominently displayed with his name, both his behavior and his school work improved.

A boy who stole, was an isolate in his age group, and bullied younger children was put in charge of selling and ordering soft drinks during a summer community recreational program.

He also became a star player on a school-community team. The boy was rehabilitated as a respected member of his school and community. Moreover, he applied the same guidance that he had received to a group of small boys who stole some boxes of soft drinks: he hired them as his assistants, saying that they would not steal if they had the money to buy what they wanted.

Provisions can be made for individual differences if the school offers a wide range of activities including rest on a sunny patio or roof, individual corrective exercises, simple games in small groups, sports, team games, and feats of skill and daring. If the teacher knows the physical and social needs of each student, he can provide suitable initial activities and a progression of experiences.

Group discussion can advance plans for a balanced life, clarify common health problems, and combat superstitions. Fatigue, colds, undesirable deviations in weight, absence due to illness, tuberculosis, "nervousness," posture, skin disorders, menstruation, boy-girl relations, excessive work, headaches, choice of physician, self-medication—these are frequent health problems among adolescents.¹⁶

Physical and health education also have vocational aspects. The many opportunities in the fields of teaching, physical therapy, and recreation may be described to students who show interest and aptitude for the work.

Self-realization, mental health, and social competence are furthered by development of skill in certain games and sports. Play relieves nervous tension. Natural dancing offers outlets for creative expression; square dancing gives one a sense of belonging to the group; social dancing is, in many communities, an essential social skill.

Attention to health is basic to other forms of guidance. Efforts to make other adjustments are defeated if health conditions are neglected. Health needs, once recognized, should be followed through until they are met, even though the solution upsets traditions and vested interests.

In Music and Art. Music and art have avocational, vocational, and therapeutic aspects that can be developed by the teacher

¹⁶ Margaret L. Leonard, *Health Counseling for Girls*. A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1944.

with the personnel point of view. He first helps each student enroll in the class that best meets his needs. The Seashore tests of pitch, intensity, rhythm, and time, as well as the motor tests, give the teacher some information about a child's musical capacity. In the Rochester, New York, schools music supervisors and teachers cooperated in a program that encouraged each pupil to participate in the special kind of music for which he was best suited and in which he was most interested, whether voice, piano or another instrument, or ensemble work. Emphasis was placed on the needs of the individual.

The teacher should also inform students about vocational opportunities in the field of music. Russel Squire¹¹ called attention to the limited vocational opportunities in this field. The 1910 Census showed that 85,000 of the 200,000 musicians in the United States were teachers. It may be that radio and television will increase the demand for professional musicians. Spaeth¹² discussed the opportunities for music teachers. Every teacher has the responsibility of "helping the child to discover music for himself, and to discover himself musically."¹³ The music teacher has an advantage in being able to observe a student's development over a period of years. Through providing for continuity of enjoyment and experience, he can use music as an important avenue of self-realization.

Two examples of the guidance of individual students will illustrate methods which teachers can use. The first is in the field of art.

An art teacher was at first puzzled and disappointed when a boy in his art appreciation class who had shown more than average ability in creative work said, "I don't think I want to be in this class, Mr. Sloan."

Mr. Sloan asked, "Why don't you like Art II, Doug? Don't you think a well-educated person should know something of art history and modern art?"

Doug said, "Oh yes. I guess it's a good thing, but I want to do

¹¹ Russel Squire, "Music as a Vocation," *Music Educators Journal*, 27:22, October-November, 1910.

¹² S. G. Spaeth, "Music Teaching as a Profession," *Etude*, 69:11+, February, 1931.

¹³ James L. Mursell and Mabelle Glenn, *The Psychology of School Music Teaching*, p. 85. Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1938.

things, not look at what someone else has done and just talk about it. Last year was all right when we were painting every day, but I'd like to get out of this."

Mr. Sloan had known Doug for two years as a rather unsocial, unpopular boy who claimed that the principal and several of his teachers "had it in for him." Though he was an excellent athlete, he would not willingly take part in the physical education program. By talking further with him, the art teacher learned more about Doug's interests and ambitions, and together they worked out the following plan: In this large high school, there was a great deal of publicity art work to be done. The principal, the student council, various clubs, and other groups continually had need of posters and other art work, all of which was prepared in the art room by various students. Mr. Sloan asked Doug if he would like to take full charge of this work for the year, choosing whatever assistance he needed. Doug readily agreed. He proved to be capable and responsible. He spent much of his free time in the art room.

Soon after he had taken on this new work, there was a noticeable change in his attitude. He gained a sense of belonging and being of worth that he had never experienced before. He became a well-known and popular figure, relied on by the faculty, the student council, and other groups. He also showed improvement in other phases of his school work. He was elected staff cartoonist on the weekly school paper. At a general assembly in June he was cited for unselfish work for his school. He began to make inquiries about vocational opportunities in general and in the field of art in particular.

The second illustration is from the field of music.

In a teachers' college a music teacher became interested in a boy who was specializing in the violin but who, because of infantile paralysis, could never achieve outstanding success as a concert artist. From observing the student in his music classes, the teacher discovered that he had a fine sense of pitch and musical color and the ability to figure out combinations of instruments and voices that produced unusual effects.

The teacher encouraged the boy to arrange part of the music for a special concert. The boy used this opportunity to demonstrate his ability in making musical arrangements. In addition, he learned to play the viola for the occasion.

These two interests, continued after the concert, brought him wider social contacts. With a little encouragement he later made a study of the native music of Finland, the birthplace of his parents, and produced many fine arrangements for small vocal and instrumental groups.

Thus, without discouraging this young man from playing the violin or telling him that his initial ambition to be a concert

violinist was futile, the teacher, by looking for positive abilities, was able to broaden his interests and help him progress along lines in which he had the greatest chance of being successful. The boy eventually became an enthusiastic music teacher and continued to produce skillful arrangements for school and for public performance.

There are many opportunities for skillful, unobtrusive guidance of individual students in the art room. There the teacher helps the student to express his ideas, waits for him to discover his difficulty, makes suggestions that enable him to complete his work successfully. Pleased by the teacher's praise and helped by his tactful hints, students work with increased effort and interest. The teacher can usually find something of promise in any piece of work. At the same time he can make suggestions for improvement: a shift in line, the addition of another color, a detail added for balance. Under such guidance, students grow in creative ability and in personality.

In both art and music the teacher sometimes has the problem of steering a student away from a career for which he does not seem to have adequate talent. Through skillful interviewing the student can be helped to decide on a more suitable vocation; he may continue art or music as an avocation.

In Home Economics and Shop. The informal organization of these classes, like that of art classes, lends itself to friendly, personal contacts and the understanding of individual students. The teacher has time to talk with each student about his life plans and interests. The group work on common enterprises, such as painting scenery for a play, or preparing luncheon for some preschool children, gives all the participants a sense of belonging and a feeling of worth and helps them learn to work in harmony with others. Each learns to act as a member of a small community, keeping tools, utensils, and supplies in good order for his own sake and that of others.

The flexibility of these classes provides for a wide range of individual differences, from students who enjoy routine manual work to those who may make a highly creative contribution. The work of each should be judged in relation to his ability and the progress he has made. Classes in this field

should be permeated with the idea that every kind of socially useful work appropriate to the individual is commendable. Although the best work in these subjects may be done by the more intelligent students, those below average get great satisfaction from having a share in the accomplishment.

The therapeutic values of manual work and of creative work are well recognized. Occupational therapy and art therapy have already developed into important methods in the treatment of mental disorders. As an outlet for normal persons, self-expression through handicraft contributes to a constructive mental hygiene program. The interests in creative work that are built in school may prove of great value in the crises of later life.²⁰

The content of home economics is particularly rich in guidance values. Skill in cooking and proper care of the home is an essential basis for health and good family relationships. Practice in serving and eating meals develops good manners. Sewing and dress design help individual girls to improve their personal appearance and this, in turn, often leads to better social adjustments. These values are most likely to be realized if the home economics teacher keeps in close touch with the home and adapts her course to the needs of the people of the community.

Many parents, teachers, and students do not fully understand the nature of home economics. In one school, on "Parents' Night," a short play presented information about the home economics courses to the parents of seventh grade pupils. The dialogue between a seventh grade pupil, Jean, and a ninth grade pupil, Lucy, began as follows:

JEAN (*puzzled*). I see home economics is on my schedule. What can that be?

LUCY. I can tell you, for I've had home economics for three years.

JEAN. Please do. Will it be fun?

LUCY. As much fun as living, for it teaches how to live better. You see, home economics is a study of home life: cooking, dress-making, child care, interior decorating, care of minor illnesses, cleaning the house, laundering, repairing clothes, wise buying, and a good deal about good manners and grooming.

²⁰ Ferdinand V. Liotta, "The Shop Teacher's Role in Guidance," *Journal of Education*, 134:228-229, November, 1951.

The conversation went on to give more information about the separate courses and about some of the vocations, in addition to teaching, that are open to girls trained in home economics: many branches of the textile and designing fields; interior decoration; dietetics; operation of restaurants, tearooms, and school and company lunchrooms; house management of clubs; field and promotion work for food companies; radio broadcasting; journalism; and the most important career open to women—homemaking. Thus parents and pupils learned about the wide range of vocations in this field and acquired new respect for the vocation of homemaker.

In Religious Education. Guidance in ideals, values, and ethics is the core of religious education. In this field the church, the classroom teacher, the religious education specialist cooperating with the public schools, group work agencies, and the instructor in religion in college or university share responsibility. The church has the best opportunity for family-centered guidance and for continuity of relationships. Elementary and high school teachers help children and young people to translate ideals into daily attitudes and conduct. By encouraging them to accept differences in people, the teacher helps them to build respect for other points of view and ways of life. During adolescence students are helped by high school and college teachers to clarify their thinking about religious questions and to build a philosophy of life that will guide their living. Students need opportunities for service that relates the individual to something larger than himself, outside himself. They need experience in helping to build a better world. Occasionally an expressed religious perplexity is only a symptom of some underlying personality difficulty. In the case of a genuine religious problem the teacher should seek the best outside help available. In an interview with a boy who began by saying defiantly, "I don't believe in God," the pastor replied, "Suppose you tell me about this God you don't believe in." Perhaps nothing is more needed today than the development of spiritual values.²¹

²¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *Spiritual Values in the Elementary School*, pp. 5-252. Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. XXVII, No. 1, September, 1917.

SELF-APPRAISAL FOR THE TEACHER

As a check on whether they are providing conditions favorable to the best development of their students, teachers may ask themselves the following questions:

1. Does every student in my classes have work so suited to his abilities and needs that he can succeed with reasonable effort? Do I help students to learn from their failures?
2. Is my room free from an intensely competitive atmosphere? Do I help students to get recognition for the use of their abilities in class projects?
3. Do my students feel free to express their feelings about school, thus avoiding accumulated tension and a clash of wills that might divert their energy from study?
4. Do I realize that much of the behavior that makes teaching difficult represents students' attempts to find a way out of a difficulty, or to meet their developmental needs?
5. Do I really like the boys and girls in my classes? Do I treat my students with as much courteous consideration as I show to my friends and professional associates?
6. Do I respect each individual's personality and have faith in his ability to realize his best potentialities?
7. Do I provide group experiences in which students develop a sense of shared responsibility for enterprises and get satisfaction from the success of the group? Does each student help others to feel that they are accepted by the group? Do I use school and community resources to meet individual needs?
8. Do I help students to discover and evaluate their own abilities, strengths, and weaknesses and to meet difficulty or criticism in a constructive way?
9. Do I arouse students' interest in my subject and acquaint them with its cultural and vocational values? Are the goals of the class determined by the entire group, including the teacher?
10. Do I cooperate with the student's teacher-counselor, other teachers, the principal, and guidance specialists?
11. Do I avoid labeling a student or making a generaliza-

tion about him on the basis of a *single incident* or *limited observation*?

12. Do I try to understand him rather than judge him?

Teachers in every subject have a contribution to make to the individual development and guidance of students in their classes. They are not guidance specialists. Their task is developmental guidance. By understanding the needs of their students and by skillfully meeting these needs through classroom experiences, they help to prevent maladjustment and assist every student in developing his potentialities.

5

The Small Guidance Unit: The Homeroom

If every student had a teacher-counselor; if every class offered students ample opportunity for discussion, committee work, the development of other group participation skills, and the cultivation of special interests and abilities; and if the school program were flexible enough to include consideration of current personal and school problems, the special small guidance unit would be unnecessary. In the elementary school, where there is no departmentalization, each class is a "home" room. In the high school a special homeroom period was introduced because vital guidance activities had been lost in the shuffle of departmentalization. Through it, the curriculum could be extended to include experiences of immediate concern to students.

The desirable changes in boys and girls resulting from these group experiences should be kept in mind by the adult leader. Members of his small guidance group should acquire knowledge about the school, educational opportunities, vocations, and effective study and reading methods. This knowledge will help them to make suitable educational plans, and to carry them out profitably. At the same time, they should make good friends; gain self-confidence and a sense of security; develop social skills, hobbies, special talents, and wholesome leisure interests; and learn to respect, appreciate, and work with other

persons, however different they may be. The leader facilitates this personal development.

The homeroom is the most prevalent form of small guidance unit. It resembles an extracurricular activity, whereas the extended-period or core-curriculum form of small guidance unit is a much more intrinsic part of the curriculum. "Social Living," "Life Adjustment," and "Group Guidance" classes fall somewhere between these two extremes.

Once the idea of the homeroom was introduced, it spread rapidly—too rapidly. Principals and superintendents said, "Let there be homerooms!" And there were homerooms. But there was also a dearth of teachers who really understood what the period was for and how to use it to advantage. The result in many schools was chaos—or the mere addition of another class or study period. Teachers assigned to homeroom groups did not know what to do with them. Some perfunctorily followed suggested outlines; others merely let the students study; still others tried to keep order. Few of the values for which the period was introduced were realized. In fact, the experience was often detrimental. At present, one may note a trend toward abandoning the homeroom in favor of the extended period or core curriculum. In the latter forms of organization the so-called homeroom activities may be included and guidance fused with instruction.

In many schools the homeroom period persists in various guises. The teacher's problem is how to use this scheduled time to the best advantage. The methods suggested in this chapter are applicable to the extended period, core curriculum, orientation course, club, or any other form of organization in which group work and counseling are combined. More detail about group work processes will be given in the next chapter.

MEMBERSHIP OF THE HOMEROOM GROUP

To afford practice in democratic ways, the group should represent different abilities, backgrounds, and social status. Membership based on intelligence test scores does not provide sufficient variety of abilities and points of view. Diversity is usu-

ally assured if groups are alphabetically selected from the grade list or any other list of names that gives a cross section of the school population.

But there should be congeniality as well as diversity. Some sociometric measure of relations is desirable, so that the groups may be formed partly on the basis of the students' expressed preferences for one another and for the teacher.

Sometimes pupils from all grade levels are included in the homeroom. This plan has the advantage of resembling society in its mingling of people of different ages. The older pupils can help the younger and build up a tradition of worthwhile accomplishment. On the other hand, in this form of organization there are fewer common interests. For example, ninth grade pupils would not be interested in the kind of vocational information that is of vital concern to twelfth graders. Another disadvantage is that the older and more experienced members of the group tend to deprive the younger members of opportunities for leadership.

For continuity of relationship, it is desirable for a group to remain with the same homeroom teacher for several years. Such an organization enables teacher and students to know one another better as time goes on. Even though one homeroom teacher passes on excellent records to another, many unrecorded impressions and personal relationships are lost in the transfer. Continuance with the same group during three or four years also facilitates progression of homeroom experiences without the necessity of following a rigid year-by-year program of activities.

The disadvantages of this plan are (1) that each grade group presents special problems that may be handled most effectively by a teacher who has had experience with a given grade, and (2) that a group that happens to get a poor homeroom teacher is penalized for the duration of the high school years. These objections to the permanent membership plan can be eliminated by providing for some transfer of pupils from one homeroom to another, by making sure that there is a progression of experience, by selecting homeroom teachers carefully, and by assisting them in improving their counseling and group work techniques.

If possible, the homeroom teacher should have his homeroom students enrolled in one or more of his regular classes.

THE SHORT REPORTING PERIOD

The amount of time allotted to homeroom activities varies from five minutes a day to several full periods a week. Something can be accomplished even in the short period. Observation of many short periods shows wide differences in their guidance value. In some rooms the teacher takes the entire time checking attendance and reading notices. The pupils talk to one another or study. To many of them the "homeroom is a place where you go to wait till the bell rings for the first class."

In other rooms, where the law permits, pupil officers assume responsibility for taking attendance, which is quickly checked by the teacher; for making announcements; for conducting the devotional exercises. If this is done expeditiously, four or five minutes are usually left for some group activity. A committee of students may present a program on which they have been working, perhaps for weeks. The following are illustrations of the effective use of the ten-minute homeroom period.

In one ninth grade class, the president called the meeting *to order two minutes before the period officially began*. After reading the notices, he introduced the committee that was responsible for the program *that day*. The chairman of the committee announced that they were presenting a program of Marian Anderson records. He said a few words about Marian Anderson and then two members of the committee each played one record, telling something about it while he was putting it on the victrola.

In another room the teacher showed the students several magazines and books he had brought to class. He read a particularly amusing or dramatic passage from each. At the end of the period he said, "These books and magazines will be on the table for anyone who wants to read them in his free time."

In another room, the period was spent in committee work. Each committee was working on its special project; and the

teacher went from one group to another, helping them to improve their committee technic.

Some teachers used the period to give pupils a sense of direction for the day. Others encouraged students to prepare an inspirational poem, dialogue, prose selection, song, record, or short film to present to the group.

Although the period in each case was far too short, the time limitation did have two advantages: (1) it made the students aware of the value of time and of how to make the most of odd moments; and (2) it encouraged them to use initiative and ingenuity to find ways of doing things as a group.

THE FULL-LENGTH PERIOD

The time commonly allotted to homeroom activities is one forty-five- or fifty-minute period a week. This, too, may be used in various ways, such as the following.

Pupil-Initiated Projects. A real pupil project has many values: it helps pupils to establish a good relationship with the homeroom teacher, who has a chance to show that he likes them and accepts their suggestions; it gives them the experience of working together on committees; it helps to set a standard of wholesome recreation; it gives individuals opportunity to lose themselves in a group enterprise. For example, the first thing a tenth grade homeroom wanted to do was to have a party. In the first meeting the teacher presided to show them how their president, to be elected later, would conduct a discussion. They first pooled suggestions as to the kind of party to have: an afternoon party, an evening party, a costume party, a "hard times" party, or an athletic meet. They considered the pros and cons of each and finally decided upon an afternoon party of games. Then they appointed an entertainment committee to plan the details, a refreshment committee, a reception committee to invite guests and see that they had a good time, a decoration committee, and a "clean-up" committee.

The next homeroom period they spent in committee work and the following one in committee reports to the entire group. In the fourth week the party was held, and in the fifth period the students spent some time in evaluating the work of each

of the committees and the success of the party as a whole. It had been successful; and the group, who had entered the homeroom expecting to be bored, were eager to attempt another group enterprise. They decided upon an assembly program.

Throughout the year this group moved from project to project, growing in their ability to work together and gaining real satisfaction from the process. They came to understand the process of group interaction whereby each member contributes to defining and working toward the group goal. This teacher was completely in sympathy with teen-age youngsters. It was her opinion that while formal guidance lessons may be good on paper, they do not have the vitality of pupil-initiated enterprises. The relationship between this teacher and her pupils began to improve the moment she accepted their initial suggestion about a party. From then on they were alert, interested, talkative, and self-controlled.

Another pupil-initiated homeroom project arose out of an informal before-school discussion of a news item on juvenile delinquency.¹ The teacher, sensitive to centers of interest in her group, asked if they would like to continue the discussion in the homeroom period. This they did. Committees were formed to get facts on different aspects of the problem and to prepare reports for the whole group. On the day the reports were being given, the principal came in and was so favorably impressed with their quality that he requested the group to present their findings as an assembly program. Later they were asked to repeat the performance at a parent-teacher meeting. This recognition of their project increased group solidarity and encouraged them to work on other school and community projects. The teacher's part was to help the pupils learn to work in small groups and to present their findings in a lively, interesting way.

Programs Planned by Students. Somewhat more formal than these projects are the popular homeroom programs planned by students. These may take many forms. Most common, perhaps, is the "talent show," in which members of the class have a chance to entertain the others with music, dramatizations,

¹ Virginia Fenety, "An Effective Homeroom Period," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 12:18-21, October, 1918.

sleight of hand, or other special acts. These programs give pupils with special interests or talents an opportunity to gain recognition from the group.

In one homeroom, an "International Day" program, in which five students told about their experiences in foreign countries, held the attention of the class with its humor and dramatic incidents. A student chairman was in charge. The teacher observed the poise of the various speakers and gained insight into personality traits and home backgrounds. The students likewise gained an understanding of their classmates that promoted friendly relations.

A hobby show is another popular type of program that frequently wins group recognition and friendliness for students who do not excel in any of the generally accepted adolescent "lines."

In one large city school, the homeroom program mentioned by pupils and teachers as the best they had participated in that year was a panel discussion. On the first day a group of boys sat around a table and frankly said what they liked and disliked about girls. On the next day, the girls had their chance to tell what they liked and disliked about boys. Girls were impressed when the boys said they did not like girls who made them feel conspicuous by wearing extreme clothes or make-up. Similarly, when the most attractive girls expressed their appreciation of good manners and good grooming, the boys sat up and took notice. Mixed panels of boys and girls discussing boy-girl relationships, part-time work experience, family relations, and other matters that are of concern to the group have also proved effective.

These programs have value far beyond their content. By being held accountable to the group rather than to the teacher for having their part of the program ready at the appointed time, students are helped to develop habits of responsibility. By gaining the respect of the group and genuine recognition for good work, they are helped to feel that they amount to something. The most sincere teacher approval has far less weight with adolescents than the appreciation of their peers.

Discussion of School Problems. Every school has its problems, many of which can be solved by the students thinking and

working together. The homeroom provides both time and a good working organization for student participation in the solution of school problems.

One junior high school principal prevented the occurrence of certain problems by sending each pupil in the seventh grade homerooms a letter mentioning several disturbances, frequent in former years, of school routine—irregular attendance, tardiness, loss of articles from lockers, and failure to use the nursing service in case of illness. These groups spent their first homeroom period discussing why these few rules and regulations were necessary and desirable. With respect to tardiness, for example, one pupil said that "something important often happens at the beginning of the period, which one would miss, if he were late." The teacher suggested that they think about the still unsolved problem of unnecessary noise in the locker room, and be ready to discuss it in their next homeroom meeting.

The following week many pupils were ready with suggestions. One said that everyone should just make up his mind to be quiet. Another asked, "What about those who don't?" In the course of the discussion, pupils suggested the most important factors in the situation: Classes were going on in rooms next to the locker room; noise there disturbed these teachers and pupils; since it is natural to be noisy while getting ready for swimming, one must use self-control. In fact, there was only one reason why one should be quiet: consideration for others.

In another junior high homeroom, some pupils had been leaving the school between periods to patronize the corner candy store. This problem was brought up for discussion and clarified as follows:

TEACHER. Yesterday two boys left school at the ten-minute interval and bought ice cream pops. What are some of the things involved in that behavior?

MARY. It's a poor health habit to eat sweets between meals.

JIM. Other people were doing it; why shouldn't they?

TEACHER. What about that?

PHYLLIS. I think it's a rather silly argument. If other people began to stroll across the street against the red light, you wouldn't feel you had to do it, too.

TEACHER. What would be better than to make a flimsy excuse like that?

MARY. To say, "I was wrong."

DONALD. There's another point. Why should two or three boys have special privileges? It isn't fair for them to go to the store between periods, if the rest of us can't.

HELEN. Another thing is that they disturb the rest of the class by coming in a little late.

TEACHER. Who can summarize the arguments against leaving the school between periods?

PHYLLIS. There are three points: it's an unhealthy habit, it's an unfair privilege, and it disturbs others.

TEACHER. Are all of these arguments sound?

(Pupils agreed that they were.)

TEACHER. Are there any sound arguments for doing it?

(Pupils thought of none.)

TEACHER. Then what do you think we'd better do about it in the future?

The pupils made this rule: No one is to leave school between classes. They added it to the code they had earlier made to govern their conduct in school.

For these pupils, it was a valuable experience in group thinking, which resulted in action. As this was an immature group with little experience in democratic procedure, the teacher took more initiative than she did later when they had become more proficient in group methods of solving problems. She considered the homeroom an opportunity for a special kind of teaching, in which students learned about the group process and their own responsibility in it.

Another example of how a school problem was analyzed and solved through homeroom discussion has been reported by a homeroom teacher in a boys' prep school:

We were beginning to experience, in an increasing degree, a number of difficulties with our senior class. There was no single focus of maladjustment at first apparent; rather a score of minor breaches in school discipline and good manners, and failures to achieve up to capacity. The senior class, as a whole, seemed indifferent to its obligations and responsibilities; there was a definite lack of both school and class spirit. Even pupils who had made distinguished records in previous years were beginning to have "run-ins" with teachers; some who were leaders in extracurricular activities, in which they, as seniors, now held high offices, were commencing to shirk responsibilities or neglect them altogether.

Others who had previously manifested interest, and even talent, in certain kinds of work or recreational activities now appeared to be completely indifferent to them and were failing to live up to expectations. Some of the best pupils were among the most chronic offenders. Many of them appeared to have become "smart alecks," quick to take advantage of loopholes in the school organization or to turn to jest, scorn, and ridicule the well-intentioned efforts of teachers in their behalf. They seemed frightfully sophisticated persons who had learned their way around their little world—and perhaps even the big one! So much for the leaders.

The majority of the other pupils affected stolid or callous indifference. They were busy with their work; "trifles" didn't matter.

Social events and other class functions, traditionally important in the senior year of school life, were poorly supported. Class meetings were disorderly. Rival factions made charges against each other of failure to support common enterprises. And from the standpoint of the rest of the school, especially pupils in the lower grades, it was obvious that the seniors were overwhelmed with a feeling of their own importance. To this epidemic the other students gave the name "senioritis."

The situation that had developed in the senior class was recognized only too keenly by its class adviser and homeroom teacher. He had known these boys for a number of years—indeed, for most of their high school lives—individually and intimately. He had been their homeroom teacher for three years and knew what, as a group, they could do, and what, as individuals, they were interested in and capable of achieving. As the teacher responsible for their guidance, he was certain that the change that had come over his pupils was more than their simply having come of age. Quite contrary to present indications, they were actually and potentially a superior group, capable of real attainment and of making a vital contribution to the life of the school. He proceeded as follows:

He put the situation squarely before them, detailing precisely what seemed to have occurred and what was still happening. He spoke to them as a group, as a class, without citing individual cases. At first the class was inclined to be skeptical; they did not quite see themselves as others saw them, nor did they see any significance in the term "senioritis" as applied to them. But as days went on and individual instances multiplied, they began to understand, now that the matter had been brought to their attention. Homeroom discussions became quite frank; they even expressed some bitterness toward the school, toward certain teachers, and toward each other. Things were far from right, they now agreed. However, they were ready, at the suggestion of their teacher-counselor, to cut further recriminations and to settle down to the business of remedying the situation.

They began, first, by analyzing the situation itself, quite skillfully, in the homeroom period. A number of factors contributing to the general deterioration were brought to light. They were:

1. Most of the pupils were heavily burdened with homework assignments. Throughout its school history, the class had been a very superior group, and the teachers had come to expect much of it. The result was that individual teachers had piled up work that pupils were finding great difficulty in completing; this, in turn, had led to discouragement and a sense of frustration which was responsible for much of the antagonism recently experienced between teachers and pupils. Most of the breaches in discipline were easily traced back, directly or indirectly, to this source.

2. This tension was further increased by the fact that 98 of the 105 seniors were candidates for admission to colleges, most of which maintained high standards of entrance. The competition was keen; even the better pupils felt the strain of this pressure. Most of them had to spend from three to four hours on homework daily, in addition to assignments completed during school hours; hence they had to sacrifice extraclass activities.

3. By their own constitutions and by-laws, the student honorary societies had, until this time, followed a point system for membership, based upon the number of activities in which a pupil participated as well as the quality of work he did in them and the positions of leadership which he attained. The result was that many members had begun to work for points rather than from a genuine interest. The more gifted pupils were monopolizing most of the responsible positions. They were unable to discharge these responsibilities satisfactorily, and the other boys had lost interest.

This analysis of the situation was immediately followed up. The homeroom teacher took up the matter of home study with the various subject teachers of the senior class. The question was also brought up later in a general faculty meeting. The teachers were most willing to cooperate, with the result that the amount of homework assigned was reduced by almost half.

A faculty committee was appointed to work with the General Organization of the student body which had originally been responsible for the point systems used by the honorary societies. After further deliberations, the point system was abandoned, but the number of activities in which a pupil could engage and in which he could hold high office was limited.

A new plan for college admissions relieved pressure, apprehension, and competition by facilitating wider choices, especially by pupils ranking below the median of the class. This plan, furthermore, resulted in the better placing of individuals among respective colleges.

The results of this procedure were gratifying:

1. Practically all the original symptoms disappeared or diminished in a short time.
2. The pupils were happier, began to enjoy their work again, and went on to high attainment.
3. Both school and class spirit moved from a very low to a new high point.
4. Extra activities were resumed with new enthusiasm.
5. No senior who had completed his entrance requirements and received the school's recommendation failed to gain admission to college.

This is an excellent example of the way in which a homeroom group may analyze a school problem. Grievances were brought into the open; the homeroom teacher showed his good faith by bringing the excessive homework to the attention of the faculty. Through student-faculty cooperation changes were made in student activities policies. Through improved educational guidance, the tension over college admission was reduced. These results were possible because the homeroom teacher knew his pupils well, relied on their ability to face the problem frankly and intelligently, and gained the co-operation of other faculty members in making the changes indicated by the homeroom group's analysis.

Robert Hallett² originated in his homeroom a period known as the "gripe" session. It occurred to him that pupils in the junior high school might be harboring resentments and irritations about school matters that they would hesitate to voice to the student council. These grievances might be the result of a distortion of facts that, if brought out into the open, could be easily righted. He discovered that this "gripe" session was of value to both teacher and pupils. It helped the teacher to see things from the pupils' point of view, and the pupils appreciated having serious consideration given to their stated grievances. To illustrate, one day Mr. Hallett was called from his room during a class period. During his absence the class was in great disorder. Since he was not sure who caused the trouble, he punished the entire group. In the "gripe" session he learned that the pupils resented very much being punished for something they did not do. At the same time they

² Robert Hallett, "The 'Gripe' Session," *Clearing House*, 16:198-202. December, 1911.

could see the teacher's point of view, since he did not know who the culprits were. They agreed that they did not want him to ask them to "tattle." After some discussion one girl suggested that, if he could allow the president to take charge when he was called out of the room, the president could report pupils who were out of order. He wouldn't be "tattling," but simply performing the duty for which the group had made him responsible. This suggestion was successfully carried out.

Discussion of Common Personal Problems. Questions for discussion may be selected in various ways. A problem may arise spontaneously in the general group discussion; time may immediately be taken for its solution, or it may be deferred to another period. A question may be selected from among those anonymously contributed to a question box. The following, for example, were submitted by a sophomore high school class:

How can one make friends?

Who has the most influence upon you, your parents or your friends?

Are girls or boys, as friends, the more beneficial to a girl in high school?

What would you do if your parents oppose your having boy friends?

Is a girl justified in disagreeing with her mother on a social problem and should she try to prove her point against her mother?

Why are most parents more lenient and carefree in regard to their sons than in regard to their daughters?

When alone with a fellow, what should a girl talk about?

Is it right to discuss sex problems with boy friends?

Please explain frankly why older people object to young folks kissing and petting.

Should a girl smoke when she is with her crowd?

What amusements besides reading can a girl who is supervised very strictly find?

What qualities are needed for success in business?

When a person likes several vocations, but not one more than others, how can he choose a vocation?

Do you think that all students who have the required credits and can afford it should go to college?

By discussing whatever problems are of real and immediate concern to them, the pupils will learn how to handle these difficult adolescent situations more effectively.

Discussion of Prepared Cases. Two effective methods of stimulating discussion are to read a case or an incident to the group, or to show an excerpt of a motion picture. In Providence, Rhode Island, for example, books of case descriptions followed by questions were sent to teachers from the superintendent's office. The teachers used these cases as a basis for discussion. For example, if stealing had appeared in the school, a case describing this type of problem might be brought before the classes. If a number of students were having difficulties with their academic work, a case involving the technics of study might be discussed. In the Providence schools these discussions were held in regularly scheduled occupational civics classes. The discussion of cases is equally appropriate in homeroom periods. The teacher withholds his own judgment and encourages the students to express their opinions. Carefully worded questions and well-qualified teachers are essential if desirable attitudes are to be built. The education of teachers for this work consists of (1) demonstrating to them the best ways to conduct this type of discussion, (2) observing them as they work and offering helpful suggestions, and (3) interesting them in the study of group discussion methods.

Many excellent films are now available for class discussion. Some of the best of these have been made by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Department, New York; The Canadian Department of National Health and Welfare, Ottawa, Canada; and Coronet Instructional Films, Chicago (see Appendix A).

The question frequently arises as to how much control the teacher should exercise in homeroom discussions. Some people believe that the teacher should maintain neutrality on all questions that arise. Others feel that the teacher's opinion should form part of the basis on which students make their decision. Certainly when the student leadership is weak, wrong attitudes are frequently formed if the teacher never intervenes. For example, when an unpopular girl objected to having two strenuous athletic events in the same afternoon, the class as a

whole was scornful and derisive. Without calling attention to this specific incident, the teacher a little later played the role of group observer and said to the chairman, "Have you discussed the pros and cons of all the suggestions that have been made?" The average high school boy or girl is seldom aware of all the factors involved in a group discussion. Under such circumstances the teacher may raise questions and see that all points of view are expressed and evaluated. The role of the teacher in group discussion is to help students to observe the interaction in their groups—how and why one student tends to dominate, why some do not take any part in the discussion, how a summary from time to time helps.

Dr. M. A. Tarumiana and Colonel H. Edmond Bullis have developed group discussions with emphasis on mental hygiene in seventh and eighth grade public school classes in Delaware. The main features of these classes are as follows:

1. A real-life situation is presented by the teacher, who tells a story, reads an excerpt from a book or newspaper, tells a personal anecdote, or has pupils read the parts of a short play or recount stories of their own.
2. The pupils discuss freely the problems thus presented, the motivations of the behavior, and the soundness of the solutions offered; they also bring in related experiences of their own.
3. Shy children are brought into the discussion; the teacher and the class leader have already conferred about how to help these children contribute to the group.
4. Among the story topics which have stimulated discussion are "the importance of friends," "personality traits of a 'regular fellow,'" "how various kinds of punishment affect us," "the results of continued failure on personality development," "personal qualifications for different vocations," "problems of a new pupil in school," "the advantages and disadvantages of being timid and shy," "relations with younger brothers and sisters," "learning to lose gracefully," "problems of having older relatives or outsiders living in the family," "setting goals in line with one's capacity and opportunity."

Pupils enjoy this human relations class. Shy pupils often experience a feeling of success because they are able to take

part in it. It has held the attention of the slow group better than any of their other classes. Because of their different experience of life, certain boys with court records make excellent contributions to the discussion. All seem to understand their actions better after bringing them out in the open. This kind of discussion would be of interest and value to many homeroom groups.

Student-Teacher Planning. One of the most important of the homeroom periods is the planning session on the question: "What is the best way to use our homeroom time?" If the group is unaccustomed to informal discussion or, for any reason, resistant to using the homeroom period as an important part of the guidance program, it is effective to begin the discussion with a panel of six or seven natural leaders with sound ideas. The teacher can give this small group a few suggestions beforehand. At appropriate points, one of the members can summarize the gist of the discussion, either orally or by writing the suggestions on the board. This gives the group a sense of progress. As soon as the group as a whole becomes interested and ready to take part, the discussion should be opened to all. At the end of the period, five minutes might well be allowed for evaluation of the meeting: Did they reach their goal? If so, by what means? If not, why not? A committee may also be appointed to study all the suggestions and shape them into a tentative plan to be presented at the next meetings.

One group did not respond in the planning session as the teacher had expected. Instead, they asked her to read to them. So she did. The story selected was from *The Seventeen Reader*.^{*} It presented most sensitively a well-to-do, popular girl's relation with a poor but gifted boy, her parents' understanding attitude, her conflict over the snobbish reactions of her friends. No discussion of the story was necessary. It made its own impression. The reading of the story was a shared experience, which brought teacher and pupils closer together; it paved the way for future planning.

Election of Officers. In every homeroom or club the election of officers is one of the most important activities. A well-

^{*} Lucile Vaughan Payne, "Prelude," in *The Seventeen Reader*, pp. 60-84. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1951.

conducted election is an educational experience for all concerned.

Many details need attention. First, the members must understand the qualifications needed for different positions. If these are formulated by the group, on the basis of a job analysis, those who nominate will make better choices and those who vote will do so more intelligently. In the discussion it should be clearly brought out that popularity, friendship, and sex are not sound bases for nominating or electing persons to office and that progression of experience for the individual should be considered. In a discussion of the best basis on which to elect the chairman, one boy said, "I don't think we should choose a candidate just because he's a boy. We should select the person we want regardless of sex." Another immediately replied, "The important thing is not that we get the person we want but that we choose the person who will do the work best." Thus attitudes toward the election of public officials are built.

Second, a refusal to serve offers an opportunity to discuss why a person should accept a nomination if it is offered. A position of leadership often brings out unrecognized ability; it contributes to the personal development of the student who accepts its responsibility. It is also a way of serving the group. During the election of officers in a homeroom group, one of the girls who was nominated said she did not want to serve. Here was an opportunity to build attitudes. The teacher said, "I hope no one will ever say 'no' when he is called upon to do something for the good of the group. We should be willing to accept such responsibility even though we are busy or are timid about our ability to fill the position. Holding office is not only a good opportunity for you to give service; it may also show you that you can do something you thought was too difficult for you. You were all pleased this morning with the way Jerry represented you in the assembly. And he thought at first that he couldn't do it!"

Third, the candidate who is not elected has an opportunity to learn how to meet defeat. Before the election it is sometimes helpful to discuss with the nominees the possibility of not being elected. In one college a luncheon was held at which all

candidates for office considered desirable attitudes on the part of defeated nominees. An opportunity for establishing good attitudes toward defeat occurred in the homeroom period mentioned above. When the class was ready to vote for the nominees for secretary, the question of voting method arose. One girl suggested that the candidates close their eyes so that they could not see how many votes they received. This was opposed by one student who said, "I don't think anyone in this class would mind being defeated. Everyone can't be elected. Someone is sure to be thought better for the office than the others." The teacher asked each candidate, "You would not mind being defeated, would you?" Each agreed that he would not mind. This attitude toward defeat was expressed so openly and universally that the defeated candidates experienced none of the disappointment that often follows school elections.

When the teacher is sensitive to all these educational possibilities, skillfully conducted elections have personal and civic values, as in the following examples.

In a seventh grade homeroom the first period was spent in getting better acquainted. In the second period the election of officers took place. The teacher made a game of testing herself on the names of all the boys and girls, thus making sure that they knew one another. For each officer to be elected one or two important qualifications were mentioned. For example, they characterized the secretary as one who has the ability to present the important points of the meeting in an interesting way and to leave out dull, trivial details. The teacher reviewed the correct parliamentary procedure for making and seconding nominations and gave immediate opportunity for practicing it. Realizing that this group was young and inexperienced in group procedures, the teacher gave more instruction in group procedures than she would have given to an experienced group. Later in the year, after they had learned the basic technics of conducting a meeting, she took a much less active part in the discussion.

Another teacher handled the nominations for homeroom officers as follows:

TEACHER. What qualifications should we consider in making our nominations for chairman?

JOHN. He should be able to speak before a group.

MORRIS. He should be fair—give everyone a chance to speak.

PHYLLIS. He should not try to run the class himself and have things his way.

TEACHER. Those are all important qualifications: John's—ability to speak before a group; Morris's—willingness to give everyone a chance to take part in the discussion; Phyllis's—ability to represent the group, not try to run it his way. May I suggest one more thing to consider in making nominations—to nominate a person who needs the experience of being chairman rather than someone who we all know can do the job well, but who wouldn't learn very much from the experience.

Helping Elected Leaders. In spite of their discussion of qualifications, the group may choose a weak chairman. What should the teacher do then? It would be unwise to hold another election or to appoint a more competent chairman. It is much better to strengthen the one chosen. By reading Bailard and McKown's appealing book for leaders,⁴ the chairman can learn how to conduct meetings and work effectively with his group. If necessary, the teacher can give him help outside of class on how to handle certain situations. Some of his duties may at first be delegated to a more able student. After mastering the simpler duties of his office, he will be able to handle progressively more difficult situations.

In one homeroom the secretary was assisted in the performance of his duties by the following directions, which were written on the blackboard. This was a simple, time-saving method of instructing him in correct and orderly procedure. At the same time it called the attention of the rest of the class to the importance of the motions they made.

The minutes should include:

1. Name of organization.
2. Kind of meeting.
3. Place.
4. Date and hour.
5. Name of presiding officer.
6. Number present.
7. Motions stated and votes taken.

⁴ Virginia Bailard and Harry C. McKown, *So You Were Elected*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1946.

8. Manner of adjournment.

9. Signature of secretary.

The secretary never expresses his personal opinion in the minutes. Each motion, with the name of the maker and the vote on it, should be recorded in a separate paragraph. Discussion of a motion is not included in the minutes.

It is frequently difficult to get an exuberant group to conform to the limitations set by parliamentary procedures. If the chairman is weak, the teacher may occasionally have to intervene. In one effervescent group the voting was conducted in so hilarious a fashion that there were two more votes than the number of persons present. At this point, the teacher said, "Let's do this the square way—as it should be done." They then reviewed the parliamentary procedure involved.

"Now let's practice what we know," the teacher said. "We can conduct our election efficiently and in a more grown-up way. You don't want to have a chairman telling you what to do. You can handle the situation yourselves."

After this instruction and encouragement, cooperation and order replaced the earlier confusion, the election was properly held, and plans progressed rapidly. When a group does not cooperate, the teacher should try to find out why they need to behave in this way, what they are trying to accomplish.

In another instance, when there was confusion because one boy was monopolizing the floor, the teacher said, "This discussion should bring out arguments on both sides of the question, shouldn't it? I'm afraid you didn't hear what the others said, Ralph." Later, in the same group, when a pupil made the motion that "Albert select the other members of the committee," the class said, "No." At this point, the teacher stepped in to establish correct parliamentary procedure. She said, "There was a motion. Does anyone second it?" No one seconded it. "Then the motion is lost."

The teacher here helped the pupils to do better the things they were doing. She demonstrated correct parliamentary procedure. She recognized their need for certain limits and stepped in and set them. With this amount of guidance, they were able to go ahead on their own steam. She taught them to select one point for discussion and get somewhere on it. She did not

step in so often that the chairman felt inadequate, or that the pupils felt she was interfering or depended on her to take responsibility for the success of their meetings. They felt free to experiment and to work out ideas for their homeroom period.

Importing Information. The homeroom period is frequently used to give the group information that would otherwise have to be given individually. Giving information is often followed by discussion and problem-solving. Students entering a school or college need to become acquainted with the buildings, traditions, educational and recreational opportunities, and other matters. Confronted with longer and more difficult assignments, they are ready for help on effective reading and study methods. If they are expected to take responsibility for planning their work, they welcome suggestions on budgeting time. If they have been elected to positions of leadership, they need to know more about conducting meetings and initiating, planning, and carrying out activities. The task of planning a course of study for the next three or four years requires a knowledge of available courses and curricula, and of the requirements for graduation and for admission to other institutions.

For example, one core-curriculum class spent many periods in discussing each major field: the topics included, its interesting features, its vocational and avocational values, and its place in the students' present program. If some students were not at all concerned with a particular field, they were permitted to spend the period working in the library, laboratory, or study hall.

Some homerooms, especially in the senior year, spend a great deal of time on the study of vocations. In one group the vocational guidance unit was introduced by a vocational guidance expert. During the hour she brought out clearly the need for planning:

If you take more commercial credits than a college will accept, you are shutting the door to a college career. If your plan does not include college, and you do not take commercial or other practical courses, it will be hard for you to get a job when you graduate. So you choose subjects that will bring you nearer to the thing you want to do. If you are not going to college, plan a course that

will fit you for business, a trade, or other work. If you are going to college, take the subjects required for college entrance. As these requirements change every few years, you must keep up to date. Colleges rate students on personality as well as on academic achievement. In admitting students they consider ability and achievement, participation in student activities, cooperation, courtesy, dress, manners, and other personal characteristics.

In discussing vocational objectives she said:

Investigate the fields of work in which you are already interested and look at other fields, too. There are a number of books that will help you do this. Some of them I have brought, and will leave here for you to look over. [For a list of such books and pamphlets see Appendix B.]

In college some new field may open up to you. Vocational objectives change with your experience and with the times. Therefore, keep your interests broad. Become informed about the vocations that interest you most and, by the process of elimination, finally find the one most suited to you. Be realistic: consider the chances for your success in the vocation. Take advantage of radio programs, movies, and newspaper and magazine stories on occupations. Usually you can meet and talk with persons doing the kind of work which you are considering.

You must keep on growing to keep up with life. Life does not stand still, nor can you. You are never through growing and learning. Do not give up a strong interest until you have made a thorough study of yourself and the field. What may be a difficulty for others, may not be for you. Eventually you will find the field for which you are particularly fitted.

This introduction to the field of vocational guidance gave the students the feeling that each one had a definite place in the world. The speaker introduced possibilities that they were eager to follow up. Consequently they decided to spend as many periods as necessary working along the lines she had indicated.

In a vocational guidance unit certain pupils may volunteer to have their interviews with the counselor before the entire class. The members then take part in the discussion; they are usually eager to help one another in their self-evaluation and vocational planning. By hearing several such interviews, students learn a method of exploring their own vocational interests and abilities independently. These are some of the questions usually asked: What is your vocational interest at pres-

ent? What evidence do you have of your ability to do this kind of work? What subjects will help you develop this interest? What is your scholarship rating in these subjects? Why do you think you would like to do this type of work? Is there a demand for this particular vocation? Does your choice require specialized training? If so, can you obtain this training? Where? Have you ever talked with anyone who is doing this type of work?

If this type of period is to be successful, the following conditions should prevail:

1. The students should feel both a need and a readiness for the information.
2. They should have a share in locating and presenting it, for example, in committee reports.
3. The information should be accurate and definite. Persons with experience in the vocation should be invited to supplement the students' knowledge.
4. The information should be geared into the students' plans and purposes.

COUNSELING INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN THE HOMEROOM

The homeroom teacher is a teacher-counselor. He should spend part of the homeroom or core-curriculum time in counseling individuals. Because of the informal nature of the period, he can usually do more work with individuals during the period than the classroom teacher can. When the students are working independently or in committees, the teacher may talk to individuals. He can often follow up immediately the clues he obtains from observation in the group.

Understanding of Individuals and the Group. Homeroom teachers in an experimental school acquired a background of knowledge of the individual students by helping with the testing and registering of students. The testing gave them an opportunity to observe individuals and the group as a whole. During the admission interviews they obtained data about the background and needs of each individual. At a staff meeting attended by the special guidance workers, the information about each student was interpreted with reference to the experiences that might be provided to meet individual needs.

When the homeroom students understand the value of obtaining more information about themselves, an intelligence test, an interest inventory, a questionnaire on home background, and a health record may be administered in the homeroom period.

Each homeroom teacher then made an analysis of his class: the distribution of mental ability, the vocational and other interests represented, the social backgrounds and ambitions, the physical condition of the students. This picture of the group formed a background against which the personal data about each student became more meaningful. The following is one teacher's overview of her class:

The eleventh grade consists of nineteen pupils, of whom sixteen are girls. In spite of this, the boys are not too much overshadowed; they are lively and interesting persons. Two of the boys are photographers, and are going to tell us about this hobby in a homeroom period. One of the boys is an outstanding leader, having superior ability, a very alert manner, and considerable experience in participating in group discussion.

Among the girls there are many interesting personalities. One girl came over from France a month ago, having lived in Paris most of her life; her comparison of this school with her French lycée was revealing and amusing to us. Another girl has been in America only four years, having come from Germany; she has been very kind to our French refugee, explaining our customs and manners to her and helping her to fill out the many blanks and questionnaires.

The class has liveliness and spontaneity. The students seem intellectually curious, eager to hear new things and to discuss things they already know. They are generally dependable. Only occasionally must they be made aware of the necessary limits to personal freedom in a school situation.

The reading interests of the group cover a wide range, from *Rilla of Ingleside* to *Dostoevski*, from movie magazines to *Coronet* and *The Nation*. Their hobbies are equally varied—from dress-making to psychiatry. Their problems involve: ill health in the family, financial difficulties, choice of a vocation, difficulties in school. The French refugee stated that her greatest problem is "to become an intelligent, interesting, and good girl"; judging to date she seems to be solving it very well.

These boys and girls are healthy and attractive. Of course, some are aggressive while others are shy, and some of the pupils as well as their parents express the hope that they may gain self-confidence through participating in the activities of the school. This is espe-

cially true of pupils coming from boys' or girls' high schools, where they have had little opportunity for normal contacts with the opposite sex.

The class has elected as chairman a very capable girl. We have had thus far two homeroom periods, one of which was a planning period, the other a program of talks about foreign countries by five members of the class who have lived in or visited these places. Those who spoke showed poise, imagination, and good observation as well as a fine sense of humor.

Making Home Visits. A homeroom teacher in a different kind of school, which had no special guidance workers, called at the homes of all her students before school began. She had previously talked with the teacher who had the group the year before, and had familiarized herself with each student's personal information card in the office. During the visits, the teacher became acquainted with each child. Thus at her first homeroom meeting she was greeted by a roomful of friends. She had something in common with each child. She knew about their vocational experiences, their pets, their hobbies, their interests, their abilities in sports and games, their playmates. She knew something about their relations with their parents and about experiences that would enrich the group. If they had had special difficulties such as shifts of school in early years or serious illness, she used this information to help them to get off to a good start.

During the year parents often invite homeroom teachers to their homes. After seeing a child in his home environment and observing parents and child together, the teacher can work with him more constructively in school.

In making home visits, teachers should be as expert as possible. Basic is a genuinely friendly, understanding attitude—being, mainly, "a real person." These suggestions are helpful:

1. The first visit should be friendly—not concerned with any problem or difficulty. It is too bad that many teachers have contact with the home only when the youngster has got into some kind of trouble.
2. The teacher should have an invitation to visit; he should not drop in upon the parents unexpectedly.
3. One good way of gaining rapport is to ask the parents' help on certain school questions or problems, or to ask them

classes. When asked how he felt about this, Jim gave a noncommittal shrug and said he didn't know anything much about sports anyway.

A few days later Miss Merton and the nurse had a short conference with the guidance-minded principal. They decided to contact Jim's other teachers to learn more about his behavior in other classes. Each teacher's report rounded out the picture of marked restlessness, inattention in class, and progressively poorer work. It was also noted that Jim was beginning to have difficulties with other boys in his classes. His remarks were provocative, and he fought effectively with words. He had begun to bully the smaller boys and had been heard to retort on several occasions, "I wouldn't even want to play such stupid games [referring to the after-school athletics] with a bunch of sissies."

By now Miss Merton had some important information in her possession. She knew that Jim's behavior in her class was being duplicated in other classes; that whatever it was that was disturbing him was spreading to his relations with fellow students. She wondered whether his inability to participate in athletics in this school was bothering him far more than it had in his former school. The life of this town literally revolved about the school and its well-kept athletic field and victorious baseball and football teams.

She decided that the next step was to find out how Jim himself felt, so she made an appointment with him. He came to the conference unresponsive and wary; he shifted nervously in his seat. He seemed suspicious of Miss Merton's casual questions about how he spent his time after school. His answers were at first evasive, "Oh, I just work around and help some at home. Then I go out in the street and fool around."

"How do you help at home, Jim?"

"Well, I don't do much—clean up the yard and go to the store."

"And when you're not helping at home or studying?"

"Oh, I don't know. I read some." Jim seemed uncomfortable.

"You don't feel happy in school any more?"

"Oh, I guess I'm doing O.K., but I don't like it much any more."

"Your grades were so very good up until two months ago. Why do you feel you have suddenly lost interest?"

"I don't know, Miss Merton. I guess it's because I'm tired all the time. You know, I've got heart trouble." This last statement was made with sudden vehemence.

"Perhaps, Jim, it would be a good idea if you saw Dr. Alcott [the school doctor]. He might be able to discover why you feel tired all the time and could help. I'm sure. Perhaps you would like to see the school nurse in the morning and let her make an appointment?"

"All right." There was no enthusiasm in his voice. "Shall I bring my mother?"

"Perhaps you had better ask the nurse whether it will be necessary for your mother to come. She could answer that better than I."

Although Jim had not talked freely or poured forth his feelings about the whole situation, Miss Merton got the impression that his work at home was not important to him; that he was using his heart trouble as an explanation of his lack of energy; that he was willing to try, but not hopeful about finding a way out; and that he was still dependent on his mother.

On the following morning Jim went to the health office and made an appointment with the physician for the next afternoon. They decided that Jim should come without his mother.

Before the appointment the nurse contacted Jim's former physician by telephone. After consulting his files, the physician advised the nurse that the heart murmur had been noted two years ago and was probably of a functional type. He said that he had yielded to Mrs. Lewis's insistence that Jim be excluded from physical education at that time, and that he felt that Jim should now act upon the present findings of the school physician. This information the nurse discussed with the school physician.

The examination showed no trace of heart murmur, and an electrocardiogram reading at the local hospital confirmed the school physician's diagnosis. When the physician advised Jim that his heart was sound and that he might now take gym and enter any of the sports he wished, he became greatly agitated. He spoke rapidly, saying that his mother wouldn't let him, that he didn't want to anyway, that he didn't know how, and finally that the fellows would laugh at him.

After they had returned to the nurse's office, the boy calmed down and gradually began to ask questions, "Did the doctor really mean I could do anything—even play baseball?" He went on excitedly for a few moments. Suddenly he stopped. His face clouded. "But my mother wouldn't let me—she still thinks I have heart trouble. And the fellows would laugh—I don't know any games—that is, I *know* them, but I've never even batted a ball."

"Your mother is coming in tomorrow to talk with the doctor, Jim. I'm sure that she will be glad to learn that your heart is all right now, and that she will want to see you out with the other fellows. You especially like baseball?"

"Gee, yes! I've been to see the Big League games in the city—and I bet I *could* hit!"

"I'll bet you could, too, Jim, and with Mr. East's [the gym instructor's] coaching, you'll be out on that diamond before you know it." The boy left feeling happy.

The mother presented difficulties. She did not readily accept the

physician's statement that Jim's heart condition had been functional and that the murmur was no longer present. She reluctantly agreed to his taking gym but insisted that he had no time to stay after school hours playing foolish games. It took a number of skillful interviews with the principal to help Mrs. Lewis see the possible relation between Jim's school work and his strong desire and need to be a "regular fellow." Mrs. Lewis finally agreed to allow him a few hours weekly for after-school baseball practice.

The gym instructor, who learned about Jim from the homeroom teacher, gave him unobtrusive help during class hours and spent a little time after school drilling him on batting and catching. This instruction together with a keen interest and natural aptitude gradually gave Jim the self-confidence he needed to join the other boys in practice games on the diamond. His acceptance by the other fellows was by no means immediate, but it gradually came about as his skill increased.

With the aid of Miss Merton Jim learned to budget his time so as to complete his homework, satisfy his mother's work requirements at home, and still have time for enjoyable hours on the diamond.

This increased satisfaction in school life had a favorable effect on his school work. He showed a marked improvement in his grades, since "all B's or above" were prerequisite to baseball practice. Although Jim never became a hero of the local nine, he did become a regular fellow in his own eyes and in the eyes of his classmates. He accordingly had no further need to call attention to himself by rudeness and bullying. His energy was no longer pent up in inner conflict between the kind of boy he was and the kind of boy he wanted to be.

A good deal of time was spent on this one boy. But it would have taken much more time and effort to reclaim a juvenile delinquent, and there would have been far less chance of success.

The boy's homeroom and English teacher—his teacher-counselor—was the central figure in this guidance procedure. She was the first to note the change in Jim's behavior and to ask, "Why?" She accepted his explanation of his poor school work and tactfully suggested that the doctor might help him to find out why he was tired all the time. She kept in touch with the nurse and principal, who reported new developments to her. As a classroom teacher, she gave Jim support in his renewed efforts to do better school work. She also sympathetically interpreted the boy's behavior to his other teachers

- having the same hobby may get together and each present one phase of it. For example, several in one homeroom were interested in stamp collecting. One talked on "The Purpose of Collecting Stamps"; another, on "Stamps as a Business"; the next, on "How I Became Interested in Stamp Collecting"; and the last showed and discussed briefly a few rare and beautiful stamps from his collection.)
- Making the room more attractive, and appointing a committee to be responsible for its daily appearance
- Orientation tours through the school or campus
- Reviews and discussions of motion pictures
- Reviews and discussions of radio and television programs
- A series of career conferences bringing in outside speakers, among them recent graduates or former students who have dropped out of school and are willing to recount their experiences in getting and holding jobs
- A description of opportunities in trade schools
- Exhibits that crystallize the thought and study of a series of homeroom meetings
- An "amateur hour"
- An exchange of programs with other homerooms
- Preparation for an assembly program
- A "Professor Quiz" program with questions about the school or current topics
- An open house for parents
- A discussion of home and family relations by a panel of parents and adolescents
- Sociodramas dealing with common problems such as what to do when you get a poor report card, parents' insistence that one come home earlier than "the crowd" does, conflict over use of the family car, not being asked to dance at a school party, interviewing for a job
- Interest groups—travel, drama, etc.—whose members report to the class the most interesting parts of their small group meetings
- Leisure-interest groups, presenting actual opportunities in the community to develop or pursue an interest in recreational reading, art exhibits, museums, music, arts and crafts, nature walks, camping, sports and games

An evaluation of commercial amusements

Self-rating on qualities of importance for vocational success, these ratings not to be handed in

Dramatizations of correct social usage; for instance, introductions, social conversation

Demonstrations on how to be well groomed and attractively dressed

Projects that will improve the school or community

A Hallowe'en program demonstrating how to have fun without being destructive

The reading of a Christmas story

Preparation for attending a concert together

Discussion of the reasons why students get poor grades

Practice in reading more effectively for different purposes

Discussion of national and world conditions of current interest and importance, such as military training, strikes, the atom bomb

In general, the favorite programs are those in which the students are active and those which deal with the world they live in and with their personal development.

Although each homeroom should develop its own program, a central committee on homeroom activities may aid the inexperienced teachers by preparing an outline of suggested topics and procedures. The following outline was prepared by a committee of Westwood Junior-Senior High School, New Jersey. It suggests topics which other homeroom teachers have found to be vital to the students. It is much better to work intensively on a few projects or programs of real concern to the group than to "cover" superficially a large number of topics. Teachers with initiative and originality should be encouraged to develop their homeroom programs experimentally with their pupils and to share their successful procedures with other teachers.

I. BASIC ACTIVITIES

A. Seventh Grade—*Orientation to High School*

1. Objectives of homeroom and purpose of departmental organization
2. Orientation to school routine—review during October
 - a. Study hall procedure—fire drill, library, absence

- b. Conduct in cafeteria, halls, assembly
 - c. School activities—clubs, athletics of interest
- 3. How to study and read effectively
- 4. Leisure time, hobbies, places of interest
- 5. Parliamentary training
- 6. Health habits, personality, and study of personal qualifications for specific occupations
- 7. Ways in which a junior high school student can improve his community—his state, his nation—through citizenship
- B. Eighth Grade—*Prevocational*
 - 1. Consideration of requirements of the various occupational classifications
 - 2. Discussion of what makes a successful person
 - 3. Biographical reports on successful people in various fields
 - 4. Applying for part-time or summer work
 - 5. Thrift
 - 6. Talks by local people on occupations
 - 7. Use and enjoyment of the public and school libraries
 - 8. Curriculum choice and its implications—study course requirements (Try to enlist parent cooperation in planning and encourage parents to come up for conferences.)
 - 9. Qualifications for college entrance or other schools
- C. Ninth Grade—*Articulation with Senior High School, Orientation of New Students*
 - 1. Preparation for homeroom officers
 - 2. Welcome new students and help them
 - 3. Parliamentary training
 - 4. Preparation for freshman dance (Set standards, discuss details of correct and courteous behavior on dance floor. Evaluate dance.)
 - 5. Reconsideration of choice of course of study
 - 6. Individual conferences—particularly on course of study, leading to tentative plans for the four years
 - 7. How to study and read ninth grade subjects
 - 8. Use of leisure time
 - 9. Orientation to school routine, buildings, and traditions. See Item 2 under seventh grade
- D. Tenth Grade—*Rethinking Attitudes—Toward Home, School, Vocations, Community. Discussion of Values, Standards, and Human Relationships*
 - 1. Learning to get along with people
 - a. At home—Misunderstandings at home; nature of problems faced at home
 - b. At school—Nature of problems; how best met
 - c. With friends—Types of friends you like to have. What do you value in a friend? How much should a friend expect of you? You of him?

2. Companionship—Why necessary? Advantages? Disadvantages?
 3. Independence—How much should you have? In what things should you have more independence? Why? In what things less? Why?
 4. Change of vocational choice (Note items suggested under eighth and twelfth grades.)
 5. Improving one's self-evaluation—Types of conduct
 6. Improving school—Place of school in helping solve community problems. How much should the school do? How much should you expect from the school? What does the school need?
 7. Chief problems of youth today—Our changing world and the effect of changes on problems of youth
 8. Need of active parental interest in problems of youth and in the school—How increase parental interest? Follow out some of the student suggestions if possible.
 9. Current events—forums
- E. *Eleventh Grade—Provisional Choice of Vocation and School or College. Continue Consideration of Standards and Values and Problems of Youth as Approached in Tenth Grade*
1. The process of trying to narrow down choices—Encouragement of more serious reading; reports on biographies and vocational articles
 - a. Consideration of important elements in the situation before making a vocational choice—a sort of self- and job analysis after investigating fields of interest
 - b. Reports on occupations; discussion of advantages and disadvantages of various occupations
 - c. Use of college catalogues and occupational books and pamphlets from library and guidance office
 2. Individual conferences
 3. Draw on preceding years for suggestions for activities (Note suggestions of vocations under eighth grade.)
 4. Current events forums
- F. *Twelfth Grade—Articulation to Life after High School—to College, to School, to Business, etc.*
1. Factors involved in selecting one's school or college; need for additional training
 2. What does business expect of the high school graduate? What may the high school graduate expect from business?
 3. Important factors involved in getting and keeping a job
 4. Are you ready for college? College goals?
 5. Does your education stop if you don't go on to another school?
 6. How to study in college or adult classes
 7. Problems to be met in another school; in business

8. Leisure time and how to use it; hobbies
9. Problems of student not going to school beyond high school
10. Opportunities for part-time education; neighboring schools
11. Ways and means of self-education after high school: libraries, the radio, press, etc.
12. Current events forums

When subjects of homeroom discussions are not fresh, specific, vital, and interesting, the pupils are bored and have little desire to make the program a success. They abhor general discussions of the same old topics brought up year after year in the same superficial way.

The same suggestions in a homeroom handbook can be handled in many different ways. For example, in a school in which outlines of topics were sent to the homeroom teachers, one was on courtesy. In one class the teacher merely read the outline, expanding it here and there. She made no attempt to get the pupils' point of view. Although the period was supposed to be spent in teaching courtesy, the teacher herself showed no consideration for the pupils. They laughed sarcastically at one another; all during the period their attention was at a low ebb. Another teacher handled the same program with a humorous approach that the pupils appreciated. A third teacher used the outline as a springboard for creative discussion. Each pupil had something to say about the subject. Good humor permeated the period. Though never didactic, the teacher found many opportunities to make helpful suggestions to individual pupils. A fourth teacher asked the pupils in her class to think of discourteous behavior that was not included in the mimeographed material. Bad temper and lack of consideration for others in the family were suggested as more serious than any of the items on the prepared list. These comments broadened into a discussion of family relationships.

In the first class the teacher exerted an autocratic type of leadership; in the second, the leadership was still essentially autocratic but mitigated by a sense of humor. In the third and fourth homerooms, there was a truly shared experience. Teachers and pupils were seeking light on the subject together.

These are among the most common objections which students make to homeroom programs:

1. The same topics are repeated in the same way grade after grade: "It's the same old stuff."
2. The homeroom periods are conducted by formal classroom methods.
3. The teacher does not try to get into the students' world and see things from their point of view.
4. Too many topics are touched on in rapid succession, all superficially.
5. The programs are not developed and evaluated cooperatively by the students and the teacher.

It is evident from the reactions of many pupils and teachers that formal, preachy character and courtesy education must be replaced by homeroom programs in which consideration for others, responsibility, sincerity, and other desirable qualities are *practiced with satisfaction*. As Fénelon said, "If virtue offer itself to a child under a melancholy and constrained aspect, if liberty and license present themselves under an agreeable form, all is lost, your labor is in vain."

HOMEROOM AS PART OF THE SCHOOL

The homeroom at its best is a central motif in the whole pattern of school activities. Representatives from each homeroom report for their group at student council meetings and bring back the council's decisions and points of view. Homerooms frequently stage assemblies for the school, assist in school and community drives, publicize the extraclass program. When some important school policy or project requires student thought and action, it can be handled through the homeroom organization. Small organized units are essential to the democratic development of school-wide projects. All subject teachers can cooperate closely with their students' homeroom teachers, exchanging information and suggestions for the guidance of individual students.

The following physical features greatly facilitate homeroom activities: movable chairs and tables, a bulletin board, a bookcase, a locked file in which the teacher can keep student

personnel records, a students' file for reference material and for records and evaluations of activities, and, if possible, movable partitions that provide privacy for small groups and interviews.

DISCUSSION METHOD IN HOMEROOM PERIODS

Since the discussion method is the core of the informal homeroom or classroom period, it is very important that teachers know how to improve the quality of group discussion.

Choose Suitable Topics for Discussion. The question should have recognized importance to the group, and there should be a genuine difference of opinion about it. Though it is desirable to choose a question that requires action or decision, discussion may be used to clarify certain issues even though no immediate action can be taken. This is often the case with adolescent problems involving a philosophy of life or a conflict between individual desires and social demands. In some instances the discussion may lead to the decision that nothing can be done about the problem at present.

Many adolescent problems are effectively introduced, as already suggested, by the reading of a case history or description of a real life situation, or by the showing of an excerpt from a motion picture, or by a mental hygiene play such as "The Ins and Outs."^{*}

Encourage students to state the question in their own words so that it is understood by all.

Know the Individuals in the Group. Then each may be asked to contribute his special knowledge and experience. Certain members may be asked to come prepared to present facts, to give their experience relating to some phase of the problem, or to suggest a solution.

Be Sensitive to the Individuals in the Group. For example, if one member looks as though he wanted to contribute to the discussion but is too shy to speak up, the leader should ask his opinion. He should encourage a member who has made a good point somewhat incoherently to clarify it. Every member

^{*} *The Ins and Outs*, New York Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association and the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York.

of the group should be alert and creative: alert to find something of worth in each person's comments, to see its relation to the main focus of the discussion, to sense the contribution which every member of the group can make; creative in finding and relating what is significant in all that has been said. Members may take turns in summarizing the group's progress.

Keep the Main Thought Moving Forward. One technic of doing this is occasionally to ask questions that draw the discussion back to the main point or open up a new aspect of the subject. Another technic is for the leader or group recorder to summarize the members' points from time to time in a pattern of thought that has a focus and significance beyond the scattered ideas contributed. He integrates conflicting points of view. Yet he does not impose his own point of view. He tries to represent accurately the thinking of the group. Each member should "carry the ball" forward. This he can do by building on what has been said and making his new point briefly. Too often members are so busy formulating what they are going to say next that they fail to listen and learn.

Take Time for the Group to Appraise the Quality of the Discussion. One of the best ways of doing this is through the group observer. He makes tactful comments, often in the form of questions for their consideration.

See That Useful Records Are Made for the Guidance of Future Groups. A brief description of each homeroom project or program and comments on its effectiveness is most helpful. An observer of the group process may aid other groups as well as his own by recording the ways in which group discussion and other homeroom activities can be improved.

Each period in which a student leader serves as chairman offers teaching opportunities. With a poor chairman, a homeroom will quickly degenerate into an undisciplined mob instead of developing into a thinking group. When the student chairman is in charge, the teacher must be tactful, or else his suggestions will be resented. Following is an example of the way a teacher handled a homeroom in which everyone was talking at once:

TEACHER. Mr. Chairman, may I ask a question? How many in this group have been in clubs before? (*Many raised their hands.*)

Then you know when we elect a chairman, we give him power to conduct the meeting properly. What do we owe our chairman?

PUPIL. Respect.

TEACHER. Yes, and we give up our right to talk any time we want to. So hold in your enthusiasm and wait to be recognized. Then it's up to the chairman to play fair. He must call on each of you in turn.

During the period, whenever the students forgot this principle, the teacher reminded them of it, until, by the end of the period, they were really following good procedure. By giving her interpretation and suggestions in a positive form when the need arose, the teacher was training both chairman and members in good discussion methods.

COMMITTEE WORK

Committees are an important part of the homeroom organization. They give a large number of pupils opportunity to learn to work together. They furnish congenial groups for shy students inexperienced in group participation. However, unless each committee has a real job to do, these values will not be realized. Among homeroom committees that have functioned effectively are those in charge of social events, bulletin board, current events, student banking, various drives, scholarship, room decoration, special interests, and programs. These small groups provide practice in committee work—a technic in which adult groups are often so deficient. Anyone who has endured the futility of many committee meetings and squirmed during aimless discussions is convinced of the need for improvement in committee technic.

Effective committee work uses the discussion technic already described. Most students have to learn by experience how to be a real chairman and not a boss or a nonentity. The following suggestions will be helpful to students who want to improve the quality of committee work:

1. Choose a committee on two bases—the individual's ability to contribute to the committee's work, and his need for the experience.
2. Find a convenient time and place for meeting.

3. Work with the committee in stating clearly the purpose for which the committee was formed and in outlining steps to be taken.

4. Follow good discussion procedure.

5. Spread responsibility so that one or two committee members do not do all the work.

When new committees are appointed, a brief class discussion will bring to mind the points just listed. If the newly formed committees seem at a loss to know what to do, the teacher can assist, as in the following record of part of a homeroom period:

Walter, as program chairman, explained the committee's proposed plan for a program.

HOMEROOM PRESIDENT. *Are there any volunteers?*

(No one volunteered.)

TEACHER. Mr. Chairman, it's not easy to volunteer because it seems like bragging and it's not good to brag about what you can do. I suggest a list be posted on the bulletin board and the members of the class sign up for what they wish to do. We might have suggestions now for running committee meetings. What are some?

(Pupils made suggestions.)

TEACHER. The chairman of each committee should hand in his notes to the homeroom president. What can those not on committees do?

PUPIL. They can read.

TEACHER. All right, browse about. Now, Mr. Chairman, where shall the committees meet? Shouldn't they be as far apart as possible?

(The chairman assigned places to each committee, and the pupils, after signing under the committee of their choice, took their places.)

The teacher made these suggestions only after giving the pupils a chance to take the responsibility themselves. Her recognition of the reasons why some pupils do not volunteer for committee work showed her sensitivity to the way individual pupils were feeling.

With an inexperienced group the teacher may use the entire homeroom period as a demonstration of the way a committee may work. This was done in a seventh grade homeroom:

TEACHER. Older classes know how to conduct committee meetings. We had better take a period to learn how to do it well. Then you will not waste time when you break up into your committees at the end of the period. I will help you to learn how a program committee works. First there must be a plan that tells: When? Where? Who will take part? Who is to come? What will each member do?

(These suggestions, partly formulated by the group, were written on the board by the secretary.)

TEACHER. Now what's first?

CLASS. When?

PUPIL. I think we ought to invite Mr. Irwin to the program.

TEACHER. Are we talking about who's coming? No, only about when it will be held.

(There was general discussion on this question. The choirman recognized the same speakers over and over again.)

TEACHER (to choirman). Should you call only on your friends? Give everyone a chance.

(An argument about the date arose and the orderly suggestions turned into bickering.)

TEACHER. What should we be talking about?

CLASS. When?

(A motion was made and seconded to give the program on October 14. The class unanimously decided to have the program on this date.)

TEACHER. That's one thing off the list. Now what is next?

CLASS. Where?

TEACHER. I'm going to keep still and see whether you can do this all by yourselves.

(The class suggested the auditorium, the social room, and the roof. These suggestions were written on the board and the advantages and disadvantages of each were discussed. The motion was made to vote on the place. Only the "aye" votes were heard.)

TEACHER. Take time for the "nays."

(The vote was properly taken and the social room was chosen.)

TEACHER. That was nicely done. Now, who will take part?

(A discussion followed on the question of compulsory versus voluntary participation. Five pupils demanded the floor at once. The chairman seemed at a loss as to whom to recognize.)

TEACHER (To chairman). Why don't you call on someone who hasn't had a chance to speak thus far?

PUPIL. I don't think participation should be compulsory. You wouldn't put a child in the water before he could swim. Stage fright is somewhat like that.

(Another pupil gave an example of stage fright.)

TEACHER. There's a difference, though, between a big performance such as Ralph described and a small private program like ours.

(Finally a motion was made and carried to choose the performers on a volunteer basis.)

TEACHER. The period is up, but I'm sure the committee can go ahead in the same way to answer the other two questions. They will report to you next time.

This teacher was serving as a very active observer of the group process. She succeeded in showing the class that a committee needs to have a plan and to think in an orderly way. She allowed them to get off the point occasionally so that they would see for themselves the difference between a chaotic and an orderly progression of thought. Incidentally, she helped the chairman to improve his technic. As soon as she thought they had learned how to discuss a point, she put the responsibility on them and commended their success. As a result of her guidance, the group ended the period with a feeling of satisfaction in the progress they had made.

SOCIOMETRY AS A GROUP TECHNIC

Sociometry is a simple and effective way of measuring certain kinds of social relations. Briefly, members of the group are asked to write on a small piece of paper the names of the three persons in order of preference with whom they would most like to serve on a committee, eat lunch, go on a picnic, or participate in any other activity in which the group will engage. These slips are used to make a picture—a sociogram—of the interpersonal relations in the group. The detailed procedure for making a sociogram is described in other publications.⁶

The sociogram should be interpreted with awareness of the following limitations:

1. Preferences change from time to time; they may be influenced by some occurrence immediately preceding the sociometric test; expressed preferences do not always accord with observed behavior.

2. The results refer to the relationship in the specific situa-

⁶ Helen H. Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations*. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1918.

Ruth Strang, *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*, Revised and Enlarged, pp. 241-247. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1949.

tion described; other students may be more frequently sought under different circumstances.

3. Observation of a student and knowledge of his relationships outside the school group may give quite a different picture of his ability to relate himself to others.

Despite these limitations, the sociometric test has value in helping teachers in their various roles to determine which students are natural leaders and which students are not chosen or are rejected by members of the group. Sociometric information is also helpful in forming groups—the homeroom group, clubs, committees, and other smaller groups. The unchosen student should be placed in a group with someone whom he has chosen, and to whom he can most easily relate himself. Any individual who learns to relate himself even to one person thereby becomes better able to take part in a group.

SOCIODRAMA, REALITY PRACTICE, OR ROLE-PLAYING

The effective homeroom teacher uses a variety of dramatic techniques—parts of plays that have particular significance for adolescents, mental hygiene or guidance plays written specifically for therapeutic purposes, dramatizations of previously recorded situations that may serve as a springboard for discussion, and sociodrama or role-playing. Sociodrama deals with common or group problems and can be used effectively in school situations.¹ Through it students can try out, with no fear of failure or blame, behavior which they are expected to use in real life situations. Psychodrama deals with individual problems and should be used under psychiatric supervision.

In conducting sociodramas successfully, the leader generally should use the following procedures:

1. Have the students write concrete descriptions of situations in which they felt disturbed and at a loss.
2. Select a situation common to the group.
3. Ask for volunteers to play the roles.

¹ Helen H. Jennings, "Sociodrama as Educative Process," in *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, pp. 260-285, 1970 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington, D C., 1970.

4. By questions and comments make the situation and each role as real and vivid as possible—help each student to “feel the role”; this is called the “warming up” process. By insisting that the role players speak and act as though they were the person, the leader sets the stage for their success in the role-playing situation.

5. Observe the role-playing closely; make comments only if they are necessary to further the action.

6. Ask the players afterward to give introspective reports of how they felt toward specific things the others did and said.

7. Encourage discussion of the way the situation was handled, and of ways in which it could have been handled better. This criticism is entirely impersonal, directed not at the players as persons, but at the roles they were playing. After the discussion it is often desirable to have the same individuals play the roles again, applying the suggestions given. Other students may also want to show how they would handle the situation.

EVALUATION OF THE HOMEROOM PERIOD

Every homeroom teacher should help his students to evaluate the periods and to see the progress they have made. Otherwise they will have a sense of futility and wasted time. This can best be done by appointing in the beginning an observer of the group process, who will make tactful comments, ask pertinent questions about the process during the meeting, and raise points for discussion at the end: whether or not a given meeting showed signs of careful planning, had effective member participation, brought out new talent, was not too solemn or serious, held the attention of the entire group, showed progress over previous meetings. Without doubt, such a discussion serves as a stimulus for the improvement of future meetings and programs. It is also valuable in developing students' ability to welcome criticism and to profit by it.

The teacher, too, should evaluate the homeroom program as a whole. Criteria for this evaluation are to be derived from the objectives set up by the particular group. However, they will usually include the following:

1. Each member should have an opportunity to contribute to the success of homeroom projects and gain satisfaction therefrom.

2. Each member should receive help in setting and reaching his own personal goals.

3. The homeroom discussions should clarify school problems and lead to their solution.

4. The homeroom experiences should help each member to grow in initiative and in ability to fulfill the responsibilities he accepts, to get satisfaction from the success of the group, and to get along with others; each should gain a sense of worth and "belongingness."

5. The projects undertaken should be worth while, and should bind the whole group together.

6. The atmosphere should be informal enough to allow individual growth along the lines mentioned, but not so informal as to interfere with orderly accomplishment of group business.

If the evaluation shows much to be desired, pupils and teachers should feel challenged rather than discouraged. Everyone can learn from experience. Evaluation helps one to recognize mistakes that would stand in the way of future success.

Whether the period is long or short, whether the contact with the group is for one year or more, the present quality of most group work can be improved. The most functional criteria for the homeroom teacher to apply are these: What learning is going on in this group? What changes are taking place in the students?

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Effective guidance through a homeroom, core curriculum, or other small guidance unit, however, does not "just happen." Certain conditions are necessary:

1. Teachers and students feel a need for the small group guidance unit and are aware of the individual development that may take place through group experience: shy persons, grouped with a few congenial classmates, learn to feel at ease and contribute to the group goal; individuals who are too ag-

gressive learn that they get more satisfaction from being friendly and considerate of others; children from broken homes gain a sense of belonging in their *homeroom*.

2. Only as much time is scheduled as can be used to good advantage.

3. The homeroom teacher stays with the same group for three or four years and has each student in at least one of his subject classes.

4. The teacher knows the individuals in his group and is ingenious in providing the experiences they need.

5. He improves his technics of working with informal groups—discussion method, committee work, sociometry, sociodrama, and methods of guiding individuals through group activities.

6. He learns to have faith in the students' ability to set worthy goals and work toward them.

7. He uses a range of procedures, depending upon the experience of his group and other factors. Although he tries to create a permissive atmosphere, in an emergency he may be directive and autocratic. Often in the beginning he will take an active part in teaching members to understand and use more effectively the group process. As the group becomes more experienced, he may merely observe the members as they take initiative and assume full responsibility.

As one stage of the transition from departmentalization to a core curriculum or general education program, the homeroom has served a useful purpose. In trying to do right by their homeroom groups, many teachers have gained increased understanding of their students and greater skill in group work.

6

Guidance in Extraclass Activities

Mr. Epstein, will you sponsor the photography club this year?"

When he answers "Yes," Mr. Epstein takes on one more guidance responsibility. Already he is aware of the guidance aspects of his role as classroom teacher and teacher-counselor of a small guidance unit. Now he must learn to make his club an experience that helps his students to grow up intellectually, socially, and emotionally.

Fortunately, in his homeroom he has gained practice in many phases of group work. He has learned to make elections an educational experience, to conduct group discussions, and to help students work together in committees. Most important of all, he has formed the habit of observing the interactions of members of his group and of using the activity itself to serve individual needs. Nevertheless, Mr. Epstein wishes that he knew more about group work. He feels secure in his skill in photography but somewhat insecure in his ability to use this activity to help the members develop better human relations.

It is common in schools and colleges for faculty members to spend from three to five hours a week in extraclass activities. For this service they rarely receive additional remuneration, and in less than a fourth of the schools are their hours of instruction reduced. For the most part, they give this service not

because it improves their professional status (although it usually does), but because they enjoy the informal contacts with eager adolescents and feel that this work contributes to their own growth as well as to the social and emotional development of their students.

Many teachers who have volunteered, or have been requested, to add the sponsoring of a student activity to their repertory of professional responsibilities, feel as Mr. Epstein did. They want to understand more clearly the nature of group work and its values to students,¹ and they want information about some procedures that have been used successfully.

NATURE AND VALUES OF GROUP ACTIVITIES

Group activities should have something of the quality that Walter Pater described in his essay on Leonardo da Vinci: "What he cared for most and at all times was that which could give the highest quality to our moments as they pass . . . filling the common ways of life with the reflection of some far-off brightness." Student activities, at their best, are experiences in living together in which desirable changes take place in the individual members and progress is made toward achieving the worthy goals of the group. This requires a skillful leader who neither dominates nor stands passively by, but helps the group to develop their best ideas. Because he is sensitive to each member, he is able to make the activity serve the personal needs of all. He also helps the group to become aware of the forces influencing them, and to utilize or change these forces.

If the leader has clearly in mind the possible values of the group activities which he sponsors, he will be more likely to realize them. From experiences in his group the members may gain many personal values: a sense of worth and of being of service, a feeling of "belonging," increased self-confidence that arises out of successful activity, willingness to share responsibility for group enterprises, improved scholarship (if participation in extraclass activities is not excessive), develop-

¹ For a more detailed treatment see Ruth Strang, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*, Chapter I. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1946.

ment of special interests and abilities, social skills, and standards for the use of leisure time. In addition to these personal values, the group activity may make a contribution to school and community life.

EFFECTIVE PROCEDURES FOR GROUP WORK

Having clearly in mind the "why" of student activities, the sponsor naturally wants to know "how." He will meet problems in forming groups and publicizing the club program, in getting acquainted with the members and with the group as an entity, in understanding the interaction and its effect on individuals and on movement toward the group goal. He will note individuals in the group who are in need of counseling. The following suggestions and illustrations of procedures, supplementing those given in the previous chapter, will help sponsors achieve the potential values of student activities.

Get Your Group. Obviously this is the first step. It involves forming new groups and recruiting members who need the experiences which a given group can offer them. Does the student activities program meet the needs of all? The need for reorganization of the program may be indicated by a check list of preferred activities filled out by all the students or by a more thorough study of their twenty-four hour schedules. Frequently a few students get together and decide they want to organize a new club. Then they look for a sponsor and go through the procedure of registering the club with the person serving as director of student activities.

Among the perennially popular student activities are:

Athletic and recreation clubs. Popular among these is the hiking club. Walking is one of the most healthful and inexpensive activities; it requires a minimum of equipment. Hikes to unexplored places, and especially the experience of camping out overnight, satisfy students' desire for adventure. In clubs which use the recreational facilities of the community, boys and girls may learn to engage in sports and games that they can pursue after they leave school. The recreation club also helps them to make the transition from childish games to the adult type of healthful outdoor recreation.

is often discussed in foreign language clubs. Folk dances, songs, operas, plays, and meals featuring foreign food add interest.

Home economics clubs are popular in some schools. They usually have a social aim that is realized through planning and participating in social events. They entertain other organizations in the school, and their members sometimes serve as hostesses for faculty and student affairs. Through these activities girls learn how to dress, act, and entertain at a variety of simple social events. These clubs also include educational content not covered in the class period and provide opportunities for the discussion of the vocational aspects of the subject.

A health club sometimes grows out of the interest of a class in biology or hygiene. In one instance, students in a class in community hygiene became so interested in the health practices and superstitions of ancient peoples and in present-day food problems and fads that they formed a club in which they could discuss these subjects at length and form a better basis for evaluating radio talks and advertisements.

The commercial club has often provided social education for girls handicapped vocationally by poor social backgrounds. In this type of club, girls have learned to dress more appropriately and attractively and to meet people graciously, as well as to be more intelligent about commercial work.

The majority of subject-matter clubs have social features in addition to their more specialized content. These range from informal half hours immediately following the meetings to carefully planned dinners and parties. The subject-matter clubs may help to meet a need in American life, namely, the need for pleasant informal discussion of worthwhile subjects. This can be accomplished if each meeting is a social event in which friends gather together to talk about poetry, history, science, art, or other subjects of cultural or practical value.

Public speaking clubs. The interest in declamation and debate has decreased since the days of Patrick Henry or Daniel Webster. The philosophy of group discussion is perhaps responsible for the decline of competitive speaking and for the rise of "reasoning together." However, although public speaking and debate still have value, as in the development of poise and the integration of conflicting points of view, these activi-

ties seem inferior in many ways to the less formal group discussion of questions of vital interest.

Publications. School papers, yearbooks, and handbooks have many potential values to the student: training in journalism and the effective use of English; increased information about the school; broadened friendships; development of financial abilities; and recognition for special achievements. Publications may also serve the school by unifying it, influencing public opinion, encouraging desirable enterprises, interpreting the school to the community, and recording school history. The annual is too often more concerned with trivial tangents of school life than with the fundamental educational contributions of the year.

Assembly programs. Assembly programs frequently grow out of club and homeroom activities. It is most desirable for them to represent the end result of a natural sequence of activities. Appearance before the school as a whole motivates a small group to greater effort.

The assembly is a period for social education, inspiration, unification of school interests, instruction, and enjoyment. It offers opportunities for the development of proper audience behavior, as well as of skill in speaking and acting before a large group.

A series of race-relationship programs was developed by Du Bois. They were usually dramatic in form. For example, in an Italian program the curtain went up on an Italian peasant scene, the properties for which were brought from the homes of the Italian students. Groups sang parts of Italian operas and performed Italian dances. Several students talked together informally on the stage about the lives and works of famous Italians and about Italian history and the present conditions in Italy. The audience participated in the program by learning to sing one representative song. This type of program offers possibilities for variety, for originality, for searching out source material, and for correlation with school subjects. It shows how much alike we all are and how each national group has a special and valuable contribution to make to our culture.

Another successful type of program given in some schools

is a series of demonstrations showing the contributions of various subjects. The science group, for example, perform experiments and discuss present-day implications of the subject and vocations that require a science background. The physical education classes demonstrate the sports, games, and dances they have learned in the physical education period. A program of this kind has educational and vocational guidance value.

In a school where attendance at assembly was voluntary, the auditorium was packed to listen to a program in which representatives of three religions told about their faiths. These programs were planned by a faculty-student committee.

Student participation in government. The large majority of high schools have some plan for student participation in government—community government, as it is sometimes called. A school council should grow out of the interest and understanding of students and faculty. In one large city high school, the students in English classes wrote on the "pros" and "cons" of community government, and discussed them. Debates in classes and in assembly showed that school opinion was heartily in favor of it. When nothing further was done, a delegation of students went to the principal to request that steps be taken. He told them to go ahead and work out a constitution. This they did, and the community government in that school subsequently became a fine influence in school life.

Skillfully handled, this activity may greatly improve school conditions. Many examples could be given of how the school council has made the school building and grounds more attractive, created better social conditions in the lunchroom, improved the study hall, made studies of school problems and presented practical solutions, which were actually carried out. The chief work of the council should be in preventing, not giving penalties to, discipline cases.

A representative form of government, such as the one illustrated by Figure 2, has proved satisfactory in many schools. Homerooms send representatives to the student council, which in turn appoints committees for special duties. Other schools favor the commission form of government, in which committees constitute the council. Either form of organization pro-

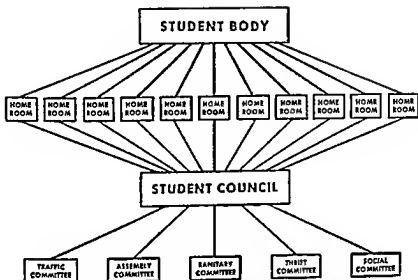


FIG. 2. Representative Form of Student Participation in Government

vides educative experiences for a large number of students.

Clubs for all. At Shorewood High School, Wisconsin, time is provided for every activity, and activities are created in response to student interests and needs. An activity time chart in the student handbook lists the groups that meet from 8:10 to 9:05 in the daily activity hour for the seventh and eighth grades, from 11:00 to 12:00 in the activity period for the ninth to twelfth grades, the noon-hour activities, the after-school activities, and the evening activities. Then follows a page for each activity, giving information on these items:

Name of activity

Name of sponsor

Regular meetings per month

Period of day activity meets

Days of month activity meets

Number of meetings per month

Length in hours of each meeting

Special meetings per month

Summary of student time required for regular meetings

Special meetings

For officers and special committees

For rest of membership

Saturday morning rehearsals

Hours per month expected for club work or practice outside of meetings

Titles of principal officers (e.g., editor-in-chief)

Clarifying or supplementary statement, describing the activity

This method of publicizing activities prevents serious conflicts and guides the pupils' initial selection of activities.

"Every student a club member" is not an altogether desirable goal. It is possible for participation in extracurricular activities to crowd out more valuable experiences. For example, at a certain time in a student's career, studying history assiduously might be more profitable than being chairman of the junior prom committee.

Clubs should not have a closed membership. If seventy students wish to belong to a certain club, additional sections should be formed to meet this demand. If limitation of membership is necessary it should be on a natural basis, such as the tryout method often used to select membership in dramatic clubs. In one school the best qualified students joined Dramatic Club A, next best B, others C. Thus groups were somewhat homogeneous on the basis of initial dramatic ability.

Publicize the Program. A club may be publicized in various ways. Announcements in homerooms may supplement mimeographed sheets that give the name of each club, its eligibility rules, the time and place of its meeting, and a brief description of its activities. Each club may have an opportunity to present its program in assembly, or in an "activity fair" where each organization has a booth. Clubs may have "open meetings" to which they invite any students who wish to attend. Club news may be published in the handbook and the school paper or posted on bulletin boards.

Counsel Individuals. Each student should plan his extraclass activities with his counselor, as part of his total educational program.

There are always some students who seem not to meet the qualifications of any club. They are not invited to join groups. Yet they need the kind of education that the social curriculum gives. The teacher can observe such students with a view to discovering and developing some latent ability that can then be called to the attention of a particular club. If a student's unpopularity is caused by some specific habit or condition, a fellow student whom he likes or a teacher with whom he has a good relation can often tactfully help him. One way to do this is to comment first on a person's assets and then say, "It's funny, isn't it, how some little thing can outweigh lots of good qualities—some little thing that can easily be corrected. For instance" and then go on to show how he can overcome his particular fault.

In counseling students about their social curriculum the counselor needs:

1. Knowledge of the students
 - a. Their previous leadership and club experiences
 - b. Their present social activities and relations in and out of school
 - c. Their daily schedules, including hours spent in home duties, study, and other activities
 - d. Their health, abilities, interests, goals, and needs
2. Knowledge of the clubs
 - a. The aims, standards, and contributions of each group
 - b. The personality of the sponsors
 - c. The membership
 - d. The traditions and continuing interests

With this information the counselor can aid the student in selecting the best group or groups for him. By telling the group worker about this individual, the counselor further helps him to gain the experiences he needs.

Know Your Group. A sponsor does not really know his group until he can answer the following questions: What is the group atmosphere? Is it one of repression, with the leader actively and authoritatively directing and the members obeying his orders? Or is it an atmosphere of pleasure and freedom within definitely set limits?

What are the structural characteristics of the group: How many members are there? Why do they attend? What is the relation of individual members and subgroups? Is the inner organization elastic? Does one member become prominent while he is doing a particular job, and then give the center of the stage to someone else who has a special contribution to make? Is the club completely controlled by its officers, board of directors, or executive committee, or do all the members share directly in making policies? Is it a closely knit group in which members are interdependent, or a highly individualistic group in which the members have little influence on one another? Are there hostilities that make for disintegration, or respect and affection that bind the members together? Is it possible for members to work individually and yet be unified by a goal toward which they are all striving?

What are the dynamics of the group? Toward what goals are they working? The goal may be very definite, such as giving a play, making clothing for destitute children, baking cookies for a parents' meeting. Or it may be more general, such as improving school spirit or having a good time. These goals are determined by the values held by the group. One group may value friendships, another service, another personal advantage. These values are translated into goals that direct the activities of the groups. What roles do individual members play and how do these roles affect interaction? Does discussion move freely and frankly from member to member or mostly between leader and member? What is the content of discussion? What attitudes of acceptance or of antagonism develop?

What is the place of the group in the life of its members? Do the members find attendance at the meetings burdensome because their days are already overcrowded and overorganized? Are the club meetings the members' only chance to have a good time with persons of their own age? How is the club related to other organizations? Do the members have a democratic experience in the club? Do they run wild in outside-of-school groups because they are allowed no initiative in school groups? Groups are interdependent just as persons are, and they overlap in membership. Thus one individual may be

subjected at one time to a variety of group atmospheres and procedures.

What kind of persons are members of the group? Each member brings his individuality to the group in the form of interests, abilities, needs, and values. Widely different personalities are an advantage to a group if diverse gifts are recognized and capitalized. Each individual can contribute to, and in turn receive from, other members, individually and collectively.

Are the individual members getting the experiences they need? Does the activity help students to acquire skills that they have not already mastered? Does the activity supplement, but not supplant, other experiences of value to the student? Does it avoid physical strain, excessive fatigue, overstimulation?

Provide Progression of Experience. A developmental sequence is as important here as is progression in courses in French and mathematics. Brown illustrated this progression of experience in the following "ladder" of the extracurricular experiences of a typical student from the low tenth grade to the last term of high school:

L 10:

Membership in one or more clubs.
Committee assignment.

H 10:

Club office.
Minor position in class.

If the club office is that of president, then the girl is a member of the girls' league council and has contact with other girls' club presidents and with activities fostering other interests of girls. She is also a member of a league committee.

L 11:

Continued interest in clubs and league activities.

May elect journalism or dramatics and find interest in sports (more girls of this group evidenced interest in sports and dramatics in their junior year than in any previous semester).

H 11:

Appointment to a student body committee.
Class representative to the league council.
In charge of some important department for the league.
Club, dramatic, and sports activities continue.

L 12:

Continued interest in league activities.

New opportunities in class offices due to the increased social activities of the senior class.

If vice-principal or chairman of an important class committee, she will have charge of at least one social function. Probably chairman of an important student body committee.

H 12:

Student body officer, hence a member of the girls' league council.

Duties of student body office will prevent her from holding club or class offices but she will continue as a member of the club or clubs to which she belonged and will probably assist in class functions.²

Participation in the group life of the school should proceed in an ascending and ever-widening spiral throughout high school and college. A student should not repeat year after year the same kind of extraclassroom activities. On the other hand, it is as poor pedagogy to precipitate a student into a social life for which he is totally unprepared as to allow him to take second-year French before he has mastered elementary French. Therefore, the teacher who has charge of some phase of the social program should know the special abilities, interests, and previous group experiences of the students. Only with this knowledge can he help each student plan a program that represents an advance over his previous achievement. Progression of experience may take the form either of new experiences in a familiar field or the extension of interests into a new field. For example, a boy might progress from a committee chairman to vice-president of a science club. Or he might join an athletic club in addition to the science club. The former might be said to represent an advance in altitude and the latter a gain in breadth.

Get Started. If a teacher has been made sponsor of a student activity, he has a challenging task. How should he go about it? Let us consider one activity: the school council.

First of all, he must schedule time for attending the council meetings and working with committees and individuals. Spon-

² Marion Brown, *Leadership Among High School Pupils*, pp. 117-118. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1933.

sorship of the school council is an important professional assignment and should be so regarded by the principal.

Second, the sponsor must be clear and sound in his ideas of what the school council should do and be. The purposes stated in the constitution should be the students' purposes—not those of the faculty members or administrators. The candidates for office should not be limited to students who get good marks, behave themselves, and pay their dues. Holding an office often stimulates a student to work harder and behave better.

Participation in school government should be widespread, not limited to the small council group. The sponsor should find a way of bringing every class or homeroom group into active participation. This may be done by teaching council representatives from every homeroom, class, or club group to report interestingly and to elicit suggestions from their constituent groups effectively. This active interest of the whole school was indicated by a member of a school council who met the principal in the hall one day and said seriously, "Mr. Threlkeld, how do you think our school is running?"

The tasks undertaken by the students should seem worth while and important to them. The school council is not a police force working through a monitor system. It is an administrative body that formulates policy and gets essential jobs done.

The limits of student authority should be clearly indicated. Certain decisions they make with finality; others they must submit to the principal for approval. Much dissatisfaction is avoided when the allocation of authority is understood.

The sponsor should be genuinely sympathetic with the point of view of young people, believe in them, and give them the support they need. The ability of high school and college students to govern themselves is frequently underestimated. Again and again they have demonstrated their ability to select a task that needs to be done (improvement of lunchroom or study hall conditions, for example), work out plans, and get good results. They need a consistent expression of confidence and suggestions at strategic points.

A good first meeting is the result of careful planning. It pays

the sponsor to spend time with individual members discussing the qualifications of officers, the appointment of committees, and a program that will be constructive and enjoyable. There is no excuse for merely "marking time" at the first meeting. To do so sets a poor pace for future meetings.

Plan Activities with the Students. At their first meeting the members of a club may well plan together the goals to be attained and the methods by which they can be reached. This cooperative planning has the following values:

1. It helps the group to gain perspective and a sense of direction early in their series of meetings.
2. It makes the members more keenly aware of their stake in the success of the activity.
3. It encourages initiative and originality and increases interest.
4. It promotes the members' sociability and friendliness with their fellow students and with faculty members.
5. It helps the leader to meet the needs of the group more exactly and completely.

There are, of course, certain limitations to teacher-student planning. A balance must be maintained between planning and action; otherwise the members will have a feeling of futility, or "nothing accomplished, nothing done."

Planning is continuous. It extends over the lifetime of a club. An initial five-year plan, modified and elaborated from time to time, increases this sense of continuity over a period of years.

Use Group Discussion to Improve Activities. Student activities sometimes encounter difficulties, which can be better understood through group discussion.

In one high school the boys and girls were stirred up by the sorority-fraternity question. The school population was heterogeneous and did not mix well socially. Fraternities and sororities had become a community nuisance. Agitation against them, however, seemed to have been stirred up by parents whose children had not been invited to join.

An edict had recently been issued by the Board of Education that high school students who refused to sign a pledge not to belong to out-of-school fraternities and sororities would be prevented from holding school offices or playing on the teams. Many

of the students signed the pledge, but admitted that they had continued their membership in the outside organizations. They said, "We hate being forced into deceit."

The adult leader started the discussion by presenting a short mimeographed account of Michael Pupin's experience as an immigrant boy. After a brief discussion of the foreign boy's problem in making friends, the pupils began to relate the problem of making friends to their own outside-of-school groups. They said that cliques were inevitable with sororities and fraternities in power, that many boys and girls were left out, and that being left out was "tough on them." Some countered with the fact that there were school clubs and teams that any boy or girl could join; therefore they need not feel left out.

The leader admitted that he *did* not know the answers. He, too, was groping for a solution. He showed respect for every pupil's ideas and made each feel that his comments were worthy of thoughtful consideration. Every contribution made by the leader or by a member was evaluated—not accepted without question or rejected blindly because of its source. No one dominated the discussion; no one was left out of it.

By having one of the members summarize on the blackboard the facts and theories presented, the leader clarified the issues as they developed in the course of the discussion. The following are excerpts from the discussion, illustrating the points of view expressed by the pupils:

"You can bring different races and creeds together in sports and school clubs, and classes, but not in social life."

"You play games with colored boys and get to know them and like them, but it's different to dance with them."

"We did try to get everyone into the Junior Dance; the committee worked hard, but only the same crowd came out."

"In school all the dances are open to all the students and it's up to them to come, if they want to. . . ."

"Even though you didn't have sororities and fraternities, you'd still have cliques. It's a natural tendency. . . ."

"It's rather difficult for a dignified body like the Board of Education to reverse its decision; they have to stand on their dignity. . . ."

"Any intelligent person could draw up a good plan in five minutes."

"I think students should meet with the Board of Education and draw up a plan together. The trouble is that the Board has drawn up a plan, and the students have drawn up a plan, and they don't get together."

When the leader asked, "What is it that the Board really objects to?" pupils had various answers:

"The Greek letter. There are other social groups outside of school, in the Y's, for example, and no one objects to them."

"The Board feels the code the sororities and fraternities have drawn up is not in line with the American way; the elections are not democratic."

"The parents of kids that don't get in object. The Board was forced to action by these parents."

"I think we should have an inter-club council that includes other kinds of groups as well as sororities and fraternities. It should be a community affair."

"How could the regulations of the inter-club council be enforced? What is to prevent any club from withdrawing from the council?" (Here we have in miniature the problem of the United Nations.)

As the "pros" and "cons" of fraternities shaped up, they were written on the board:

Good Effects

Membership results in better marks.
Gives members richer social experiences and a feeling of social acceptance.
Initiates community projects.
Draws out younger pupils.
Serves as nucleus for solution of school problems.
Develops group spirit and sportsmanship.

Bad Effects

Pupils left out feel rejected; also their parents.
Increase cliques.
Not democratic.
Some of the groups have been rather wild; need to be "cleaned up."

Suggestions for solving the problem were also summarized:

1. Introduce more clubs in school so that everyone can belong to a social group.
2. Decrease the prestige attached to belonging to fraternities.
3. Improve quality of sororities and fraternities: let them sponsor more service activities for the welfare of all.
4. Have a joint meeting of students and the Board of Education in which they develop together a workable plan.
5. Create and give necessary power to an inter-club council that would consider problems and relationships of all groups in school and out of school. The council would make and enforce rules with the advice and consent of adult representatives.

This group discussion illustrates the process of guiding students to think constructively about a real problem. The discussion began at the point which the students had reached in their thinking and feeling, and then moved into possible solutions.

During the period the group showed a subtle change of feeling—a shift from hopelessness and aggrieved righteousness to a more hopeful and considerate attitude toward the adults toward whom they felt antagonistic. They saw that the adults wanted to work with them. They were learning how to solve an emotionally charged problem. May it not have been a valuable experience for future statesmen whose task will be to settle international disputes without resorting to war?

In discussion, as in other types of group activities, the teacher or sponsor is concerned as much with the process as with the end result. He is concerned that the students learn a method of thinking through a problem; that they listen to others and incorporate others' ideas into their own thinking; that they consider thoughtfully the opinions expressed by others, trying to find some constructive idea in each expression of opinion rather than to contradict it or "slap it down." It is only when a group maintains this attitude of working together to utilize all the contributions from a heterogeneous membership that effective discussion will take place.

Use Democratic Procedure. One of the most common criticisms which students make of school clubs is that "they are just like classes." The sponsor may decrease his tendency to dominate his group by becoming more aware of the nature of democratic methods. The following behavior has been frequently observed in the democratic leader:

1. He is a member of the group, not aloof from it; he plans activities with the members.
2. He encourages thinking and develops initiative on the part of the members.
3. He offers opportunities for choice whenever possible.
4. He shows interest in, and consideration for, each member; knows individual needs, interests, and backgrounds.
5. He expresses approval of the group as a whole more frequently than of individuals.

The members of a democratic group likewise show characteristic behavior:

1. They take an active part in planning and carrying out the activities.

2. They are interested in the activity and continue to work on it even when the leader is not present.
3. They exercise initiative and originality.
4. They enjoy the group experience.
5. They are friendly toward one another and toward the leader.

The role of the leader, to be sure, varies with the group's experience in working together. With a new group or with any group of inexperienced, immature students, the leader takes a more active part at first. Later he encourages the group to assume responsibility whenever they are able to carry it. He is there to help if the need arises. Still later, when the group has learned to plan and work together, the adult leader takes less and less and the group members take more and more initiative and responsibility for their activities.

The following descriptions of leaders in action show poor procedures which sponsors can avoid, and good procedures which they may adapt to their individual groups.

In many instances teacher-sponsors permit only a semblance of democratic procedures in the groups they are sponsoring.

The following discussion took place at a combined meeting of two departmental clubs between the president of one club and the teacher who was sponsoring it:

TEACHER. Wouldn't it be a good idea to have a combined meeting once a month so we could share our programs with others or prepare a joint exhibit?

PUPIL. But that would use up too much time, just as this meeting today has. We won't have time for our own club projects.

TEACHER. But a joint meeting would make it possible to contribute something of importance to the rest of the school.

PUPIL. But we want time to do what we've planned.

Having made a suggestion for the group to consider, the teacher should not have attempted to force her point of view on the pupils. For example, she might have said, "What are the other 'pros' and 'cons' on the question of having a combined meeting?" If the "cons" plainly predominated, the teacher might have left the way open for further consideration by saying, "If you feel the need for a joint meeting later, we can arrange it then."

In a ninth grade committee meeting to discuss promoting the sale of war bonds, the faculty adviser showed a tendency at first to dominate the planning. He responded to pupils' suggestions with such comments as, "Oh, that's too much like what we did last year." "That is certainly an ambitious idea; whom are you going to get to do all the work?" "Well, come on, Jim, let's get going. Get some ideas out of this group." His unenthusiastic, critical responses to the students' suggestions put a damper on the discussion, and participation began to dwindle.

Realizing his mistake, the adviser made a more democratic approach. He found something to encourage in every suggestion. Then, when a pupil said, "I think we should get every homeroom to put on its own sales promotion campaign," the adviser replied, "That's a good idea. It puts more people to work on the program. How would you like the homerooms to do this?"

Later in the discussion of ways and means, a pupil suggested making a large chart for the main hall.

ADVISER. That's good. It would arouse interest, but doesn't it require a lot of work? How can you plan to finish it quickly enough so that it can be used in the drive?

PUPIL. Bert is good at art work; let him select those he wants for helpers; he can do the job in time.

BERT. I'm willing, but I'd like to work on it at home. I have more time there.

SECOND PUPIL. I live near Bert. Suppose I go over to his house and help him?

THIRD PUPIL. Better yet, since the job has to be done in sections, why can't Bert draw up a sketch at home, decide on the colors, and then give each of us a section to do? In that way we can have the whole job done and ready for use by the day after tomorrow.

EVERYONE. That's a good idea.

BERT. I'll have the sketch ready for you tomorrow.

At the close of the meeting the adviser told them they had done a fine planning job; he said he was sure they would be successful in contributing to an important national project. He was helpfully directive without dominating. His efforts were directed toward helping the group work together successfully.

This committee meeting had several values other than its main purpose of promoting the sale of bonds. The pupils made progress in thinking on a practical problem, building on one another's suggestions, contributing their ideas and abilities to the group, respecting the opinions of others, giving approval for good ideas, and accepting the rejection of their

ideas without feeling defeated. In short, they experienced success in thinking and acting cooperatively.

After his poor start, the adviser said nothing as long as the conversation progressed toward a solution of the problem. He showed enthusiasm for the students' good ideas. To stimulate further thinking, he asked thought-provoking questions. He guided the assignment of responsibilities so that every member of the committee had a task and certain enthusiastic pupils did not carry too heavy a load. Bert, for example, had been too shy to participate until his art ability was mentioned. The responsibility entrusted to him by the group and the confidence they expressed made him feel that he truly "belonged"; from then on he took an active part in the planning. As each member of the committee assumed some appropriate responsibility, the sponsor became more enthusiastic. Finally, he praised the group as a whole for their good thinking and planning and made them feel that they had a part in an important nation-wide effort.

In certain situations, the teacher-sponsor tends to dominate a student activity because the student leader is inadequate. However, if the adult remembers that one of the purposes of student activities is to develop leadership ability in students, he will try to help the boy or girl become a more effective leader, instead of merely stepping in to get the immediate job done efficiently. This subtle kind of teaching requires that the sponsor be sensitive to the needs of the group as well as to those of the potential leader. Otherwise he may develop the leader at the expense of the group.

In a seventh grade homeroom the teacher had taken a back seat and a young, inexperienced chairman was presiding. The chairman had just concluded the discussion of a small piece of business and apparently had forgotten the most important item of business. Instead of allowing him to continue to flounder, the teacher said, "Weren't you going to discuss the membership fees?" After this matter had been sufficiently discussed and the pupils were beginning to repeat previous remarks, the teacher, in an aside, said to the chairman, "How about stating the motion now?"

A heated discussion centered on the question: "How can we make sure that all those who ordered emblems will bring the thirty-five cents?" No sensible solution was suggested, and a good deal of time was wasted in pointless discussion. The teacher, how-

ever, did not enter the discussion until the chairman appealed to her for help. Then she said, "How would it be not to send for the emblems until the money has been received?" This obvious solution was immediately accepted by the group.

Since a new member was present in the group, the sponsor said, "Bill is new in the group and would probably like to be brought up to date on what the club has been doing." The members spontaneously accepted this suggestion and told Bill about the club's aims and activities. Thus a friendly feeling toward the newcomer was established, and the entire group profited by the review of its activities.

In this situation the sponsor was active enough to prevent a feeling of futility on the part of the group and of failure on the part of the leader. She was patient enough to give them the experience of trying to solve their problem through their own efforts. With an inexperienced group, or under the *pressure of time, it is hard for the teacher-sponsor to be content to guide the members slowly and quietly, to let them learn by doing rather than to settle the question with a clarifying word here and a firm suggestion there.*

This is not to say, of course, that the sponsor should refrain from giving specific instruction in group methods. In fact, the younger and less experienced the group, the more of such instruction the sponsor must give to officers and members. The wise and experienced sponsor knows that his job is to help the group learn to observe and improve the group process. An important measure of his success is the degree to which he makes himself less indispensable.

Another example of democratic procedure involves a more sophisticated and intelligent group in an independent, or private, school.

Study hall in this school was not an educational experience. There was no consistent policy, and students were quick to take advantage of the varying teacher attitudes toward their conduct in the room and their freedom to come and go to other parts of the building. Some students made a game of outwitting the teacher.

This was a problem involving the majority of the students. The policy of the school was to solve cooperatively problems of mutual concern that were suitable for study by the students. The faculty decided to refer this problem directly to the students and to give them all the aid that was necessary and desirable.

A teacher interested in group work was selected as adviser. Prior to the opening of school in September, he met with the president and vice-president of the student body. Together they analyzed the problem and made tentative plans. The vice-president assumed leadership in organizing and instituting the plan and, with the help of a committee, prepared a detailed statement to give to each tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade student who would be a member of a study hall.

The biggest problem at the beginning was to determine the membership of the various study halls. This was finally accomplished by two means: by noting the actual attendance and by checking the program cards. Leaders were elected and put in charge of each group. Their duties were to check attendance, give students passes to other parts of the school, and maintain a study atmosphere.

At first a great deal of confusion arose. The vice-president and faculty adviser then met with all study hall leaders and worked out a satisfactory attendance-checking system. There were also problems of behavior, attitude, cooperation, and responsibility—the essence of living together. The study hall problems were then brought before the student council. They were presented as a challenge: Here was an opportunity for the students to manage their own affairs. Were they really as irresponsible as they seemed? If they couldn't handle this situation, how could they expect to handle bigger things? What were the causes of failure? Could a student group discipline their peers? What can be done with a student who will not adjust to group suggestion and pressure?

These questions were squarely faced by the elected leaders and their advisers. When they analyzed their own behavior, it became apparent to many council members that they were responsible for setting the standards for study hall conduct, that leadership carried with it corresponding responsibilities. The session was like an old-fashioned revival meeting; member after member confessed that he or she had erred but would henceforth sin no more.

This was the turning point. From then on, the prominent athletes set good examples and were a controlling influence; the social leaders refrained from engaging in conversation in study hall. A spirit of cooperation and determination to succeed permeated the study hall groups. To be sure, there were lapses, but period after period the organization functioned well.

Some of the most persistent problems in this case were (1) how to deal with the student who took undue advantage of the opportunity to go to other parts of the building for work, (2) how to provide a place for group conferences under adequate supervision, and (3) how to insure continued interest

and growth in effective study and reading methods. There was a tendency to let down when the plan was working well. The students needed to know that the faculty were still back of them and ready to help them with new problems and with the continuous appraisal and revision of their procedure. It might have been helpful in this instance for members of the faculty to tutor individuals or instruct small groups in reading and study technics, so that all the students could have achieved greater efficiency in the use of study time.

This group attempt to make the school environment more conducive to effective study was weak in several respects. In the beginning the student leaders carried too much of the responsibility. They made the plan and expected the students to carry it out. If all the students involved had shared in planning the improvement of the study hall, they would have understood it and would have cooperated more fully.

In a democratic group there should be no hard and fast distinction between leader and follower.

Work Behind the Scenes, Too. The role of the adult leader in guiding student activities may be made still clearer by a summary of procedures in an executive meeting of a college student organization:

1. The sponsor discussed the first meeting in advance with the president, who was very inexperienced. They considered whether to have free discussion or to follow parliamentary law, what the order of business was to be, how to state the problems, how to summarize, how to work out as a group the ways and means of carrying out the decisions.

2. During the meeting the sponsor gave the president unobtrusive suggestions that made for efficiency and satisfaction on the part of the members, and increased the president's self-confidence. For example, after some members had been chosen to handle a reception, the chairman said, "I hope I can count on you all to come," and was about to go on to something else. At that point the sponsor, who had had experience with the group's failure to take responsibility, suggested that the president ask those who were sure they could be present to sign their names.

3. Everyone took part in the discussion and contributed ex-

cellent ideas. For instance, someone suggested assigning the dates for parties early in the term, so that the social program and other records of social events could be completed earlier and the parties supervised more effectively.

4. The student president summarized the discussion of each main item of business, made note of side issues that needed future discussion, listed the names of persons who were assigned to specific responsibilities, and brought every practical problem down to a discussion of ways and means and the definite allocation of responsibility.

5. One member of the group, skilled in taking shorthand, took full notes of the meeting. The fact that a secretary was recording what they said improved the quality of the members' discussion. Later study of this record helped the president to evaluate and improve her technic of leadership. It would have been desirable if all the members of the group could also have studied the record or listened to a wire recording of the meeting. All of them needed to become more aware of the interaction as it is influenced by forces within each individual, within the group, and within the surrounding culture. They needed to see the effect on the group process of critical remarks, aggressive insistence by one member, and other behavior.

6. Information about the school calendar and other facts needed in the discussion were accessible. Sometimes the sponsor supplied information necessary to speed up discussion or correct wrong ideas; sometimes members of the group contributed the facts needed.

7. If the president or a member of the group made a vague statement, the sponsor often asked a question that resulted in the clarification or rephrasing of the statement. The sponsor cooperated with the group but did not dominate it.

The sponsor might be criticized on three points:

1. At several points, she made suggestions too early, before the members of the group had had a chance to express their own ideas on the subject.

2. She showed a tendency to be more concerned about getting the items of business successfully and efficiently completed than about promoting growth in clear thinking.

3. On one occasion, she responded too sharply to a sugges-

tion, which she herself strongly disapproved, without sufficient regard for the feelings of the speaker.

The sponsoring of school dances likewise presents many opportunities for work "behind the scenes." Questions like these must be answered: How long should school dances last? Who should be asked to be the sponsors, and what responsibilities and privileges should they have? How can a few uncooperative individuals be prevented from bringing criticism on the entire group? How should the sponsor deal with a group who go off in search of other recreation after the school party or dance? These problems require the concerted action of students.

Encourage Vitol School and Community Projects. More than anything else, perhaps, the success of a club, student council, or other student group depends upon having worthwhile projects. The projects described on the following pages have enlisted the *wholehearted interest and support of students in high school or college*: two orientation projects, a book week program, a cooperative commencement, and teen-age and community recreation centers.

A junior high school council worked out plans for making their school more familiar and attractive to the incoming elementary school pupils. They planned a series of parties to entertain the sixth grade and to help them become acquainted with some of the older students and with the surroundings. To make these visits educational as well as entertaining, they prepared handbooks to give to their guests, arranged a tour of the building during which the newcomers met all the seventh grade teachers in their own rooms, and printed an issue of their school paper dedicated to the new seventh graders.

In a large city high school the general organization, the community government of the school, enthusiastically endorsed and financed a motion picture designed to acquaint incoming students with the life of the school.* To carry out the plan the honor society appointed a committee composed of members and non-members of the society who had ability either in photography or in writing. A faculty member experienced in film production served as their adviser. They started work by asking the various departments to suggest dramatic incidents that would lend themselves to photography. Scores of pupils assisted in arranging the scenes, which finally included large action groups and close-up views showing in-

* Florence C. Myers, "A Film for Orientation Purposes," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:87, January, 1914.

struction and extraclass activities in every field. Floodlights operated by the school lighting squad were used in making the indoor scenes. Over 900 feet of film were eventually condensed to 750 feet. A special editorial committee wrote the script. When the picture was shown, this script was read by three pupils. The music department furnished incidental music during the film.

The appreciative response of the incoming pupils indicated that the project was worth while. For the hundreds of pupils who took part in the film the project also had real value. It not only improved their technical skills but afforded them concrete evidence of what can be accomplished by purposeful group activity.

A book-week program had similar values.

The librarian suggested that the student council sponsor an assembly program for book week. She suggested that students impersonating four well-known authors of recent books be interviewed by other students. The librarian helped the committee locate sources of information but let them work out the interviews and characterizations as they chose. The audience was enthusiastic, and the students who impersonated the authors gained special insights from playing these roles.

An unusual group activity was a cooperative commencement.⁴

The senior class at Glenville High School in Cleveland took the responsibility for planning their commencement program. They decided to hold on the stage a group discussion that would be led by a master discussion leader. Almost half the class (96 members) volunteered to participate; they organized into eight groups of twelve students each. They decided on the theme, "Democracy in Action." The three key questions were:

1. Democracy—What does it mean to us?
2. Twelve years in school—Have we been educated for Democracy?
3. "One World"—How can we get rid of prejudice—racial, religious, national?

For one month the groups met each day in their study periods, without teacher supervision, to discuss each of these questions. At intervals the chairmen of the groups met with two members of the faculty who helped them with problems of discussion method and sources of information.

On commencement night the ninety-six members were seated

⁴ Edna M. Studebaker, "A Unique Commencement Program," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 7:88-90, January, 1944.

toward the front of the stage where there were two microphones. Each group had chosen a spokesman who was prepared to summarize the previous thinking of the group. The president of the class introduced an experienced discussion leader. After a few words in which he put the class at ease, he asked two groups to give their opinion of the first question. Then he threw the question open to all eight groups for discussion. The opening summaries were like sparks, which ignited not only the entire class but the two thousand people in the audience as well. The students rose and spoke spontaneously on these questions so vital to them, and the chairman's brief, pertinent summaries kept the discussion moving forward. When the chairman made the final summary, all present felt they had had a creative educational experience.

In order to control the atomic bomb and other destructive forces in the world today, persons of all ages and occupations must learn to think about current problems. One place to begin is in schools and colleges, as in the commencement project just described.

The desire of young people for their own recreational centers is manifested in the popularity of the teen-age canteen and youth council. These centers have been set up by various agencies: a school group, a youth-serving agency, a commercial company, an independent group of young people or adults.

In one community the idea was proposed by members of the Junior League, who agreed to finance the canteen and asked for assistance from the school. The Director of Guidance made it clear that the program was to be developed by the young people, not given to them. A small group of boys and girls made a preliminary survey, which indicated interest in the canteen. A larger group of thirty-two pupil representatives met with the Junior League members to discuss the main problems: music, food, supervision, trouble-makers, smoking. They arranged to send letters to parents and to issue membership cards to boys and girls.

Later the adults did not consult the young people enough. The project failed when the adults went ahead on their own instead of working the plans out cooperatively. Teen-age boys and girls need well-qualified adults to stand by and guide, but not to dominate. They welcome adults who want to understand young people and work things out with them. There must be constant interpretation of youth to adults and of adults to youth.

It is possible to have social groups that will serve young people's needs: for recognition in the life of the community, for stabilizing routine, for new experiences, for affection and

security, for friendships with their contemporaries and with adults, and for faith in the future. The development of such community groups is an excellent project for school and college clubs and councils.

Get "Results." To "get results" means different things to different persons. To some, "results" means immediate action or accomplishment: a well-acted play, a high-class school paper. Others are more concerned with the desirable changes that are made in individuals. The two kinds of results are not mutually exclusive. In fact, a good product usually has a beneficial effect on those who achieve it. However, when a choice has to be made between the two, human values come first. The quickest way to get "results" is not always the best.

Students need recognition for good work. This can usually be given spontaneously and sincerely as occasions arise. Recognition in the form of school credit or awards may defeat the main purpose of student activities by emphasizing competition rather than cooperation and diverting attention from the activity itself to the end result or extrinsic reward. Between the extremes of casual approval on the one hand and formal reward on the other, are various forms of recognition—in assembly, in the school paper, and in smaller groups—that serve to clarify the kinds of services individuals can render to the group and to give them an added satisfaction in their accomplishment.

Keep Records of Group Activities. It is advisable to keep records of a group's activities, in order (1) to aid in the evaluation of the experience, (2) to prevent duplication and provide for progression of experience, and (3) to pass on suggestions to groups that may be carrying out similar activities another year. Otherwise, criticisms and constructive suggestions are likely to be forgotten.

Since improvement in a process is made by a continuous critical evaluation, a club program or social event should be discussed soon after it has taken place. The commendable features should be recorded; the undesirable features should be analyzed; and suggestions should be made for future programs. Such a record is helpful to another committee planning a similar event. The following is an example of the type of re-

port^a made by committees of students in one college that maintains a successful and educative social program:

OUTLINE FOR REPORT OF A SOCIAL EVENT

- I. Name of function, date, place.
- II. Committee members named, duties explained, appreciation of their work expressed; especially effective features described.
- III. Steps taken by chairman of the committee in organizing her plans.
- IV. Chaperons named; suggestions as to the type of invitation to be used.
- V. Itemized account of expenses, including information for future committee members as to where and how each item was obtained.

Total Income _____

1. Music
2. Refreshments
3. Chaperons (transportation, corsages)
4. Decorations
5. Tickets
6. Janitor service
7. Piano
8. Miscellaneous

Total Expenses _____

Profit _____

- VI. Number of guests allowed and actual number present.
- VII. Success of the function.
 1. What was its purpose? Was it a success?
 2. Did it further the purpose of the organization?
 3. Did it contribute to the personal development of those who participated?
- VIII. Suggestions for the help of future chairmen.

From such a report a new chairman can get information about the mechanical details often so bothersome and bewildering. In addition to these details of organization and administration, an evaluation of the dynamics of the activity should also be included: What interaction was observed between boys and girls, between individuals with different socioeconomic backgrounds? Did some individuals and small groups withdraw from the general activity? What procedures seemed

^a Quoted by permission of Marie Andrews.

to facilitate favorable interaction? How did those who attended feel about the party? Did they seem to be at home with one another? How did individuals feel about themselves, about their classmates, about the school?

Recognize Need for Counseling. In the informal atmosphere of a club or social event, the sponsor has an excellent opportunity to observe individuals. Many teachers say that they have come to know the students in their classes best through association with them in student activities. Occasionally some member needs special counseling, either by the sponsor or by the best-qualified person available.

Train Student Leaders. A most important part of the adult leader's responsibility is to assist the students in becoming more effective and democratic leaders. This aim is accomplished largely by individual conferences with students about their leadership responsibilities and by guidance in the groups.

In some schools and colleges there is a leadership training class which is open to potential leaders as well as to those already in positions of leadership.

In a high school of twelve hundred pupils, the president of the student council suggested having a leadership class. The dean of girls received permission from the superintendent to schedule such a class. Twenty-three pupils enrolled. In the first meeting the dean asked for suggestions as to what they wanted to include, what they thought good leaders should be and do, how the class should be conducted. The group wanted help especially on how to determine the qualifications of leaders, how to conduct meetings, and how to exert democratic leadership in school affairs.

The dean and the students developed the content of the course during the semester. They studied a book on parliamentary law, discussed procedures, and took turns conducting the meeting according to parliamentary rules. Frequently various procedures were dramatized as well as discussed. The dean worked closely with faculty sponsors and encouraged them to give students responsibility in applying their newly acquired leadership skills, as well as assistance and guidance whenever necessary. Thus actual experience in leadership was helpfully supplemented by systematic instruction.

One group of leaders in physical education held their committee meeting at noon, one day a week. After a pleasant half hour of

* See Virginia Ballard and Harry C. McKown, *So You Were Elected*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

eating lunch together, the meeting was called to order and the members' problems of leadership were described and discussed. The president summarized ways in which leaders might improve: "Being more thoughtful of a new member," "Knowing the rules," "Remembering that others are working when we go through the halls," "Keeping still when someone else has the floor," "Being more thoughtful and not running through another class's game but going around it on the boundary lines," "Keeping off the lawns adjoining the school." Outstanding examples of good leadership were described; students who had done extraordinarily good work were asked to tell about it. Sometimes a story or quotation of an inspirational nature ended the meeting.

The club sponsor is primarily a teacher of group work. It is his responsibility to help members of his group obtain experience in observing, recording, and understanding the group process, in working with others toward a common goal, and in getting satisfaction from the success of the group.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

In this chapter attention has been given to the machinery of administering student activities because failure in publicizing, scheduling, and other details may defeat the group work process. But these details are only a means to an end. It is the subtle interaction among members and sponsor which leads to the personal-social development of all.

This phase of the teacher's work is far from trivial. Skillfully conducted, student activities build personality. An individual tends to live up to others' opinion of him—he sees himself through others' eyes. He cannot become a social self without social experience. In the give-and-take of an informal group he learns how his behavior affects other people; he becomes aware of the relationships within the group. Guided group experiences are essential to the well-rounded development of the child and the adolescent. Early interests, engaged in with satisfaction, develop into hobbies, avocations, or vocations. Education for leisure is quite as important as education for livelihood. Club sponsors can help students learn "to give the highest quality to our moments as they pass."

7

The Teacher-Counselor

A newly appointed teacher-counselor, selected as one of eight part-time counselors in a high school with an enrollment of about two thousand pupils, described some of her difficulties as follows:

I expect we need all sorts of material for guidance but we are so ignorant (at least I am) that I scarcely know where to start. I wish I had taken courses in guidance long before my last summer at the University. I've tried to do some reading, but, frankly, I don't know where to begin.

I think our present counseling system has its drawbacks in that all of us feel that altogether too much of our time is spent on checking absences and tardinesses. This administrative matter could easily be taken over by the office force and leave the counselor free to work with special cases. As it is, the first half hour of our counseling time is devoted to attendance. Perhaps it is a necessary evil.

Except for this attendance problem, I feel that I am getting somewhere with my work. . . . I have already had interviews with over sixty of the 110 freshmen assigned to me. Each of these interviews I have written up so that I shall have better continuity in my later contacts.

It seems to me that we counselors of freshmen have the easiest job. These youngsters do not have immediate problems of employment. I try to interest them in suitable extracurricular activities.

However, even the freshmen are not free from unrest and we have more serious discipline problems than we used to. The boys and girls seem to resent any suggestion of authority.

When a pupil is in danger of failing in one of his subjects, the

teacher sends duplicate warning slips to the counselor and to the parents. I have to spend a good deal of my time working with these failing pupils—perhaps too much time. It seems to me that the superior pupils lose out with this method; they get no attention. I have found that the freshmen need reassurance and guidance with respect to health, school achievement, and social relations.

I don't feel that I am as close to my freshmen as I should be. I think it would be better if I taught some freshman classes and had contact with my counselees in the classroom.

The adviser of senior boys is doing a grand job. He has been successful in helping some of the boys who were confused about what to do with their lives.

During the first semester we counselors met with the principal once a week. This semester we have asked to meet twice a week, at least for a while, for we feel that we need to be in closer agreement in principles and methods.

This letter states concretely many of the problems of the teacher-counselor—his lack of preparation for his work; his heavy counseling load; his limited counseling time, much of which is used up in routine and clerical work; his lack of class contacts with his counselees; and his need for helpful conferences, courses, and books on personnel work. Underlying all of these surface problems is his basic attitude toward people—his belief in the untapped resources of every individual.

Another difficulty results from differences in educational philosophy. Too frequently the teacher-counselor feels responsible for supporting the school's policy, even though it conflicts with the personnel point of view. To be effective, both the school and the teacher-counselor should have the same goal, and that is: the best personal-social development of every student.

The teacher-counselor may also be handicapped by the stereotype of "teacher." Perhaps his greatest temptations are to talk when he should be listening, to be swift and authoritative in his responses, to give advice, and to be content with immediate, superficial results. To do a good job, the teacher-counselor should be willing to throw aside his mantle of authority and enter humbly into the confused world of adolescents. He should try to understand what helps a student succeed, and what makes him steal, run away, tell lies, fail in algebra, or otherwise fall short of his best potentialities.

THE TEACHER-COUNSELOR AT WORK

Sometimes the teacher-counselor can visit the lower school and talk with the pupils who will be in his counseling group next year. Then, when they come to the new school, they will be greeted by a familiar, friendly face. The teacher-counselor may also have a chance to talk with their teachers. These conferences will supplement the teacher-counselor's careful study of the cumulative records of each student. (See Chapter 12 on developmental records.)

If at all possible, the teacher-counselor should have time to meet his counselees as a group as well as individually. He may have them in his classes, in a homeroom or other small guidance unit group. During that period the students can gain an understanding of themselves and others and discuss common personal-social problems. The teacher-counselor can learn a great deal about individual students and can use the group as an instrument of guidance. If no school time is available, he may arrange to meet them informally at luncheon or tea, or for an evening now and then in his own home or in a school social room. These informal group experiences may range from the mere imparting of needed information to discussion group therapy sessions.

As early in the school year as possible, the teacher-counselor should have interviews with each of his counselees. His general objectives in these interviews would be to establish a relationship of mutual respect and confidence; to listen to what the student wants to tell about himself, his goals, his progress, and his difficulties; to discuss his total daily program and long-term plans; to make available to the student any resources that will be helpful to him; and to pave the way for further voluntary interviews. After the student has thought over his tentative program for the three or four years ahead and talked with his parents about it, the teacher-counselor checks it and approves his schedule for the present year.

The teacher-counselor's success in interviewing depends largely on four things: (1) knowledge of the dynamics of child and adolescent behavior, (2) facts about educational and vo-

cational opportunities, (3) skill in using counseling technics, and (4) ability to think and feel with the student. Listening is a case-work art, which most teachers and administrators need to cultivate.

Around midterm he may have another conference with his counselees to help them appraise their progress. At the end of the year, he will hold two short conferences with each student, one to consider his educational program for the next term, and the other to approve it.

Other interviews during the year will deal with a variety of problems, all within the framework of the student's total development. Often the emphasis will be on educational guidance—helping an individual to plan, follow, and succeed in a suitable educational program. Sometimes the focus will be on social and emotional problems; sometimes on choice of and preparation for a vocation; sometimes on learning to work more effectively in a group as member or as leader. Actually, problems never come singly. Problems of health, scholarship, and social adjustment often occur simultaneously. Even though the student comes with a problem, the interview should not be problem-centered—it should be student-centered. In a very real sense these interviews are developmental; for a problem represents one kind or aspect of development.

Counseling is always in a setting. Although a given interview takes place in the present, it cannot be separated from the past and the future. It is part of the total personnel program.

THE NAME AND NATURE OF COUNSELING

Counseling is a face-to-face relationship in which growth takes place—in the counselor as well as in the counselee. The relationship is of great value in and for itself. In it, the student learns to relate himself to another person as perhaps he has never done before. In the accepting, permissive, understanding atmosphere created by the counselor, he feels free to bring out into the open anything that is bothering him. As he talks about his fears and difficulties, he begins to feel a sense of security in place of anxiety. He also clarifies the tangled web of personal relations in which he is enmeshed. He begins to

understand himself and others a little better, and this self-understanding helps him to make wiser choices.

Counseling has social significance. The counselor helps the individual to see himself as a social being who desires to promote the welfare of all. By reflecting his more positive and social insights, the counselor confirms the student's social orientation. By encouraging him to work out his social relations, the counselor helps him to develop technics of social living. By helping him to resolve his inner conflicts, the counselor aids his adjustment in the group. The counselor builds upon the individual's deep-seated desire to serve, to be of worth to his fellows.

The Counseling Relationship. Each counseling period is an adventure in relationship. The student feels that the counselor likes and understands him, has confidence in him, and respects him. The relationship is warm yet objective. It is not possessive; it does not make the parents feel that the counselor is alienating their child's affection. The counselor is able to think and feel with the student without becoming emotionally involved. This kind of relationship in which there is warmth and understanding but not emotional involvement has been called "empathy."

No better brief description of the counseling relationship can be found than Chapter 13 of First Corinthians—the finest statement in literature of the efficacy of love. Applied to counseling, this chapter makes it clear that the most important factor in good human relationships is not fluency of speech, or skill in predicting, or knowledge of psychology and personnel technics, or willingness to make sacrifices, or even insight and faith. It is a genuine love of people. From this love naturally flow patience, kindness, and the attitude of looking for and expecting the best in people. Teacher-counselors with this basic attitude bring out the best in students; they are concerned with the success of the person being counseled rather than with their own success. They understand the influence of his past, accept him as he now is, and have faith in his future fulfillment.

The counseling relationship may be illumined by the comments of two adolescent girls about their counseling experi-

ences. The first is an excerpt from the last of a series of six interviews with a school counselor about educational and vocational plans:

It would be swell if you could talk to a lot of the students like this. It helped me to get my feelings about myself straightened out. I didn't really know it, but when we first started talking, I was pretty confused about wanting to do different things—you know, wanting to be a boy more than a girl. I thought I would be a teacher, but I didn't really feel, oh, completely satisfied about it. But just as soon as you started talking about the other side and showing me I could be the other things if I wanted, even without being a boy—well, I could think better what being a teacher really meant to me; and then I knew that was what I really wanted. . . . If you had told me to be a teacher and let it go at that, I don't think I would ever have been absolutely sure of it. But the other way made me do a lot of thinking about it. And now I feel good about it. I think it helped me to know that, when anyone is going to make decisions, she should see as much of the whole picture as she can. Then, if she has the facts she can make up her own mind the way she really wants to do things; and she'll be satisfied because then she isn't guessing as much about it.

Then there's another thing that happened since we started talking together. That intelligence test. I guess it was, was very interesting. You know, kids often wonder whether they really are as capable as the rest, or whether it's just because people expect them to be and so they work hard. Well, now I know I've got a good start, and the things I'm interested in I can do all right if I work at them and really try. It helps a lot. . . .

I've changed a lot since I entered high school, but now I know more about what I want to be; and I can really go at it. My, I'm really looking forward to college.

In the second quotation an adolescent girl who had been seriously disturbed describes, in her own words, her counseling relationship with a trained psychologist who had had a long series of interviews with her:

I was thinking the other night about what you've done for me. The way I feel about it is you kind of opened up everything. I was in a black hole. I was so depressed. You pulled me out. You never told me what to do, but while I talked with you things seemed to suggest themselves and they worked out. You didn't show me, yet you were the person who started it. I felt I could say more to you than to anyone else. You never get mad and don't misunderstand. I used to save things to tell you. I've been saving things to tell you. It was as though you belonged to me. You cer-

tainly made me more understanding of what the past meant and how to handle it. It still comes up but I know better what to do about it. You were something, not exactly a person, you were a whole place. It was as though I belonged. . . . I don't know how to say it. Now that I think of it you didn't give me the answers. You started me out, and then when I'd come here it was all me. You knew me awfully well. I talked to myself. . . . When I first came it was all me. Then I got to thinking about how I affected other people and what I had to do with other people, but you were a part of it all.¹

Although this girl was being helped by a skillful and highly trained worker, the relationship has many elements that should enter into the teacher-counselor's relationship with students. Teachers, too, can make the student feel that they want to listen and understand, that they are frank and honest, that they will not be offended or shocked by what he says, that they accept him as a person who, like most people, including the teacher, is sometimes in need of help. If this kind of relationship is established, the student will assume responsibility for his own guidance and draw on his own resources, using whatever knowledge and skill the teacher-counselor can offer.

The Counselor's Influence as a Person. The counselor should be himself but not impose himself. He should be genuine and sincere. He is likely to fail if he tries to play a role that is not natural to him. If a person cannot risk being himself in the counseling relationship, he should not try to be a counselor. Moreover, he is consciously or unconsciously influenced by his theory of counseling, his attitude toward school policies, his outlook on life, his attitude toward people. In short, his counseling is an expression of his personality, not merely a technic applied at will.

During the counseling process the counselor gains understanding of himself as well as of the other person. An outstanding psychiatrist said she never worked with a case in which she did not learn something about herself. After an interview is over, the counselor should analyze and reflect on his counseling experience.

¹ Virginia W. Lewis, *Changing the Behavior of Adolescent Girls*, p. 27. Archives of Psychology, No. 279. Columbia University, New York, 1915.

The question, "Should persons have counselors of the same or of the opposite sex?" is often raised. Probably the sex of the counselor does not matter, provided he understands the individual. In general, adolescents may find it easier to talk with persons of the same sex about problems related to social hygiene and boy-girl relationships. However, factors such as the personality of the counselor and the relations of the student with his parents may affect particular cases. If an adolescent has grown very dependent on the parent of the opposite sex, it may be easier for him to get perspective by having a counselor of the same sex. An initial resistance to a woman counselor frequently arises from a boy's resistance to his mother. However, if the woman counselor can establish a good relationship, she may be able to help him rebuild his attitude toward the mother and toward women in general.

Counseling Procedures. On the firm foundation of an understanding relationship, counseling procedures are built. Whether the contact is one short interview or a series of thirty hour interviews, three overlapping stages are usually evident:

1. The counselee talks freely, expressing his feelings and points of view. Thus he gets a clearer understanding of himself and the world in which he lives. The counselor listens and learns, and "feels with" the student. In a therapeutic interview the entire time may well be spent in this way. In an educational counseling interview the counselor may move on to steps 2 and 3.

2. As the counselee talks, the counselor may repeat or reflect a point that seems to require emphasis or further consideration. He may ask questions that clarify the situation for himself and the counselee. If he sees the situation clearly enough, he may venture an interpretation when the counselee shows readiness for it. From time to time the counselee may need information or sources of information that the counselor can supply, such as facts about courses, schools, training opportunities, and vocations. Tests of ability, achievement, and interest, and other techniques of personnel work are tools to be used to supplement the student's own resources.

3. Before the counseling process ends, the counselee should

have gained new insights and have begun to work out ways of handling his situation more effectively. Counseling should lead to better adjustment.

Under these conditions growth takes place. The student achieves understanding of himself, of other persons, and of the resources on which he can draw. This kind of growth cannot take place when counseling is synonymous with advice-giving—when the student is told what to do rather than helped to understand more fully his potentialities and the avenues to their attainment.

The teacher-counselor requires interviews long enough to go more or less deeply and thoroughly into the needs that give rise to observed behavior. In this process of helping a student, the teacher-counselor may become aware of deep-seated conflicts, persistent depression, extreme fluctuation of moods, and other signs of serious maladjustment with which he cannot cope on his level of counseling. He must then try to refer the case to the school counselor, who has more time and skill; to a social worker, who will deal with complex family relations; or to a psychologist, psychiatrist, or psychoanalyst, who will deal with complicated or subconscious desires and motives. It is the responsibility of the teacher-counselor to qualify himself to work as expertly as possible within the limitation of his training and the time available. He should be able to recognize and refer cases which he lacks the requisite time or skill to handle.

COUNSELING LEADING TO SELF-DISCOVERY AND SELF-REALIZATION

Although it is necessary to take care of routine matters, it is still more important to help the student gain perspective and a clearer concept of the kind of person he can become.

The first interview with Charles, a seventeen-year-old boy in the tenth grade, began in this way:

TEACHER-COUNSELOR. Suppose you tell me something about yourself, Charles.

CHARLES. Well, I like sports, I like the out of doors, I like animals, especially horses. I'd like to own one myself. That's why I'd like to quit school now, so I could go to work and get one myself—I've always loved them. I want to ride good enough to get in

shows some day. I doubt it, but I can try. And I love football and baseball, boxing too. If I could only think of my studies like I think about sports, my marks would be one hundred all the time. But I can't. I can't seem to study. I go home up to my room and try to study. After about a half hour I get lazy. I want to, I know I want to do it. I feel guilty if I don't do it, but—then I say, Oh, I'll do it. I get up next morning and I feel guilty that I didn't do it. I just like sports, open air all the time. That's all. I like girls, too, but, if I had a choice between getting married and having my own horse, I'd rather take the horse any day. Some guys say, "You're stupid." I don't think so.

TEACHER-COUNSELOR. You want to be an outdoor man. . . .

Charles went on talking freely about girls, about building himself up physically, about loyalty to his gang, about his feeling that he was just wasting time in school, and about his growing antagonism toward his father, who told him to "stick it out" even though he was pretty sure to fail in everything.

The client-centered approach enabled the teacher-counselor to enter into this boy's world, to see how he felt about horses, school, girls, his father, and other aspects of his life. Through this approach the teacher gained much more understanding than he could have gained by asking direct questions about each of these important areas of adjustment.

But suppose a student doesn't speak so freely, what then? A relaxed atmosphere often helps. The counselor should accept silences, show that he is feeling with the student, and be careful not to aggravate the student's difficulty in talking freely about himself. Sometimes another approach is better:

Richard came into Mr. Field's office with obvious hesitancy and a bit of defiance, saying, "You've probably heard all about me from the other teachers. They think I'm the most difficult problem in the school."

"I just arrived in town last night and haven't met the other teachers," said the counselor. "Anyway, I prefer to reach my own conclusions. What is your name?"

"I'm Richard Clayborn."

"Well, Richard, since I'm new here, I wonder if you'd mind helping me get organized. Do you have a class this period?"

"No, I don't. If you'll give me a note to take to Mrs. Engel, she'll excuse me from study hall and I'll come right back."

This was the start of a constructive relationship. The boy's relations with other teachers improved and he passed the history course that might have prevented his graduation.

The teacher-counselor uses many approaches. For example, in the case of a sixteen-year-old boy whose scholastic record was barely above average, whose food habits were poor, and who had begun to smoke and keep late hours, the teacher-counselor, who was also the boy's English teacher, did the following things:

1. She always found time to make some pleasant personal comment several times a day.

2. She gave him a free period once a week to talk with her about anything that had been bothering him and to gain a new orientation to himself.

3. She gave informal reading tests to see where he was having difficulty in reading his assignments.

4. She helped him plan a more suitable course of study.

5. She encouraged him to join a reading club, a dramatic club, and a basketball team. After the boy's interest in basketball was well established, the coach told him confidentially that he would have to gain weight, get regular hours of sleep, and stop smoking to stay on the team.

6. She asked him in English class to exhibit an airplane he had built in industrial arts and to explain how he had made it. Pupils crowded around him afterward to hear more about it.

7. In casual conversations with other teachers she helped them to gain more understanding of the boy so that they would meet his needs better in their classrooms.

The teacher-counselor works in these indirect ways, as well as through his counseling relationship with the student.

Too frequently counselors spend most of their time with students who make trouble. This should not be. One "normal" case—a boy who was unlikely to make trouble for other people because he was so passive—presented no obvious symptoms but came to the counselor of his own accord. He said he wanted "vocational testing," but in back of this request was a desire to map out his life, to get a blueprint or a design for living. This, of course, was not possible. No one can chart another person's life by means of tests. Tests are useful as a guide to next steps in learning, but they do not determine what vocation a person should follow or what kind of life he should lead.

In a short series of interviews this boy gained perspective and worked out a plan for achieving independence from his parents without causing them too much pain. His life will probably be more happy and stable than it would have been without the counselor's assistance.

Counseling is viewed by some as a field that only the expert dare enter. Yet at times a student needs only someone who can help him gain perspective on his problem and perhaps suggest a practical solution that he would not have thought of himself. At other times he may need to feel that there is someone who is sympathetic and understands the pressures and strains under which he is living. In many instances a single interview with a student will provide the slight amount of assistance that he requires.

Another case illustrates the work of a teacher-counselor whose time was limited, but who had excellent cumulative records for each pupil. The counseling was reinforced by a core course in which pupils made an intensive study of occupational fields and the preparation requisite for them. Each pupil had an interview with a person engaged in the occupation in which he was particularly interested.

Before meeting the pupil, the counselor studied and synthesized the following information from the cumulative record:

Eleanor was an only child, sixteen years of age, younger than most of the other seniors in her class.

Her father was a professional man, whom she characterized as "easy to get along with." Her mother was not employed, and, according to Eleanor, was sympathetic but "a trifle touchy." Her parents did not seem to agree in their methods of treating her.

Her elementary school record was satisfactory, except in the fifth grade after she had returned from a year abroad. At that time she had difficulty with her work and was tutored for three months. Defective eyesight was discovered and corrected in this year. In the sixth grade her real interests seemed childish, although she assumed intellectual interests that pleased her parents.

Her IQ, as determined by the Binet test and several group intelligence tests, was around 110, about fifteen points lower than the average of her class. In reading, as measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Test in the tenth grade, her comprehension score—grade equivalent of 13.1—was about the same as the class average; her score on the Cross English Test in the eleventh grade was 144, ten points below the class average. On the Inglis Test of English, Vo-

cahulary in the same grade her score was 92, ten points below the class median. Her score on the American Council Alpha French Test was 118, whereas the class average was 135. She obtained her best grades in biology and social studies. She played the violin and was a member of two orchestras.

Throughout high school her marks were equally distributed among B's, B—'s, and C's. Her only A was in music. Her rank in the junior year was 24th in a class of 40. In this school, Eleanor's academic record represented hard work and satisfactory accomplishment for her.

Eleanor's introspective reports revealed a lack of self-confidence and ability to get along with her classmates. She thought herself unpopular, yet she had once been elected president of her class and once secretary of an important school organization. She felt that other persons had a better time than she, although her report of activities during one week included a symphony concert, a party, movies, an auto ride, and the theater. She also felt that her teachers were indifferent to her. She disliked mathematics but enjoyed science and literature. Her greatest desire was to be successful as a physician or psychologist.

The cumulative record also showed that she had taken a scholastic aptitude test and had received a letter from a college of high scholastic standing saying that her aptitude test score was in the third quarter—too low for admission to that college.

This accumulated information gave the teacher-counselor a picture of a conscientious girl, working to the limits of her capacity and stimulated by her parents' ambition for her and by competition with classmates superior to her in mental ability. Her level of aspiration was too high for her to maintain. She would not be able to enter or succeed in a college having a scholastic level relatively as high as that of the secondary school she was attending. Attempts to maintain this level would result in constant strain and pressure and neglect of the social aspects of her development. Overprotected at home, where she occupied the center of attention as the only child, she had felt, by contrast, neglected and inferior at school.

Before the interview, Eleanor had learned a great deal in her core course about the requirements of colleges and the world of work and had made tentative educational and vocational plans. These included the choice of a university where the scholastic competition would not be so keen as in the colleges favored by her parents. She would have time for social activities without feeling the constant pressure of academic work, and could continue her study of the violin in an affiliated school of music. Vocationally she was looking forward to some kind of work in the field of public health or to a career as hospital laboratory technician. This tentative plan showed that Eleanor had gained considerable knowledge

of herself, of colleges, and of the world of work. The teacher-counselor listened to the plan as Eleanor had worked it out, encouraged her to review the thinking that had gone into it, and showed appreciation of the insight and self-direction she had achieved. At every point the girl's plan was in line with the synthesis the teacher-counselor had made from the data in the cumulative record.

In this case the teacher-counselor served chiefly as a consultant because (1) the pupil was intelligent and had developed a mature attitude toward herself, (2) she had had the advantage of group study of educational and vocational opportunities, and (3) she had been encouraged by the school program as a whole to be objective, analytical, and self-directive.

In another situation, the students were far more in need of a skilled counselor's time. Their cumulative records were very inadequate; their curriculum included no time for consideration of educational and vocational opportunities; they had had practically no experience in making choices and plans. For this reason a series of nine interviews was necessary to help a bewildered boy gain a sense of direction.

Stanley, at seventeen, was in his junior year of high school. Behind him was an academic record of low marks in every subject except physical education and manual training. In the current term he was failing in mathematics. Still, despite his lack of success in school subjects, he had seldom been tardy or absent. Perhaps his attendance record was so good because his pleasant smile and manner and his good sportsmanship had won him friends among the students and teachers and had made school a friendly, pleasant place.

He thought of himself as "an average person, no smarter than most average people." He said, "I like the open country and can't stand to work in an office. Most of my difficulties in high school come from not knowing how to study. I like sports and play them most of the time. That is why, I believe, I have never really chosen my vocation, although my parents have been after me for a long time to put my mind down to something for the future." He stated that he would like to become "a person who knew what he wanted, knew how to study and work and finish a job that he had started." Here, indeed, was a challenge to the counselor.

Two group tests of intelligence—the American Council Psychological Examination and the Otis Quick Scoring Intelligence Test—both placed him a little above the lowest quarter of the students of his age and grade who had taken the tests. However, on an

the time. They look at me and say: 'You're big enough to be deciding what you want to do; do you want to be a doctor or an engineer, or what?' I guess I am big enough, but I still don't know."

As the counselor smiled sympathetically, Stanley went on: "I wish I did know, for it sure would be easier. You see, in this school, they teach for the bright students, and I'm only average, I guess. Anyway, I don't want to be a doctor or engineer, or any of those things."

COUNSELOR. And you feel that it's one of those things that your folks would like you to be?

STANLEY. That's it, I guess. I'd like to please them, but if you're not made that way, you just aren't. My father keeps saying to me, "Why don't you have a hobby? Odier boys have, and a hobby's a good idea because then you have something to interest you besides your work." He's right, I guess; but I go in for sports all the time, and when I get home I guess I don't do much but eat and sleep; I'm tired by then.

COUNSELOR. Then, in a way, sports are your hobby.

STANLEY (beaming). That's it. Sure wish my father could see it that way. You know what I'd like to be? A pilot. I've read lots of sea stories and I worked on a boat this summer. It was swell. I've thought, too, seeing I like sports, that I'd go on to college and maybe try to be a coach—only I guess I should know absolutely what I want to be.

COUNSELOR (Explained that a great many boys and girls hadn't made up their minds definitely even at the time they finished college; that it didn't mean that a student wouldn't amount to anything if he were undecided; that colleges were so set up that the first year or two were more or less general for everyone, and after that, you majored in the field in which you were most interested and had the necessary ability.)

STANLEY. Phew! Why didn't someone tell me that before? I wouldn't have been worrying so much. It gets you down to have your folks always asking you to make up your mind. You begin to wonder if you've got even part of one to make up.

COUNSELOR (Explained the vocational inventory as an aid to making up one's mind. Stanley seemed interested and the counselor promised to bring one next time.)

STANLEY (Talked about his family's attitude toward him; his mother's desire for him to be outstanding like her father.) She's fond of me, but I guess I'm a disappointment to her because I couldn't ever be as bright or successful as her father.

COUNSELOR (Reassured him concerning his own possibilities and explained that many boys and girls find it difficult to be exactly what their parents think they should be.)

Fourth interview: Stanley brought the Kuder Preference Record which he had marked at home. He had gone ahead with his plans for a tutor and had figured out that he could have a tutoring period for a half hour between the time school got out and basketball practice started. The counselor scored the Kuder blank and discussed each area in which he had indicated interest. Stanley tried to tie up his experience with school subjects and his vocational and avocational experiences with the interests indicated by the inventory, thus arriving at a clearer picture of what his interests really were.

To clarify his interests and goals still further, the counselor introduced the idea of Stanley's writing his autobiography.

STANLEY. Gee, I never thought of that. I guess you would see yourself better if you got it down in writing. I'm not very good at writing, though.

COUNSELOR. It's just an idea, Stanley; and you don't have to do it unless you want to. I particularly don't want you to take time away from your studies to do it.

STANLEY. I guess I can do it all right. I could just take it along easy and maybe get it done in a couple of weeks. Was that the way you thought about it?

COUNSELOR. Yes, I think that's the best way to do it. Why don't you try it, then, and let me know how you come along?

STANLEY. O.K., I will, and I'll tell you what the tutor says. O.K.?

COUNSELOR. Right. See you next Wednesday, then.

Fifth interview: Stanley came late.

COUNSELOR. Did you forget about us today, Stanley?

STANLEY. Yes, ma'am. I'm sorry.

COUNSELOR. That's O.K. We all forget at times. How's it going?

STANLEY (*Explained that the plan for tutoring was not working out and he felt he'd better drop the subject now and take it over next term, as he was sure he'd flunk it.*)

COUNSELOR. Why do you think you should take it over? Do you really need it to graduate?

STANLEY (*brightening up*). No, I don't have to have it. I know I can do better in my other subjects if I don't take it.

COUNSELOR (*Consulted the records and found that credit in mathematics was not necessary for graduation. They then studied the requirements of some technical schools and colleges in which he was interested and discussed further educational plans.*)

Sixth interview: At the beginning Stanley talked about his girl friend and her mother, who were very much on his mind. Toward the end of the interview they discussed the counseling process.

COUNSELOR. The important thing is what it means to you, Stanley, and I'd like you to be thinking about that.

STANLEY. I've *been* thinking about it—a lot. I know it has made me think more. I told my mother, and she said I would have to think about it myself and see what it means. I guess it will help me to know more about what I'm to be.

COUNSELOR (*Explained that there were no tests that would tell him definitely what he should be, but that next week she would go over them all with him.*)

STANLEY. Well, I know it's helping me. I never thought too much before. I see things clearer now. I know I got another failure in math, and my mark went down in social studies, as I was afraid it would; but after I drop math I'll bring the others up. That's all clearer now. It helps.

Seventh interview:

STANLEY. Hello. I have the autobiography. It isn't very long, though. I had my father type it up for me.

COUNSELOR. That's fine, Stanley. Thanks. What did your father think of your autobiography?

STANLEY (*laughing*). He said that I certainly hadn't learned as much in high school as he thought I had and that he didn't think my English was very good.

COUNSELOR. And how do you feel?

STANLEY (*getting very red*). Oh, me! I've got other troubles.

COUNSELOR. Troubles?

STANLEY (*Talked at length about his girl friend and her mother.*)

Eighth interview: After greeting Stanley and exchanging a few words with him, the counselor spread out all the available information and began to consider it with him, point by point:

1. His idea of himself: a boy who is

Good in sports.

Average or below average in academic subjects, because

a. He spends so much time in sports.

b. His study methods are poor.

c. High school instruction is not on a level he can understand.

The counselor commented that his appraisal of himself on the questionnaire was good, except that he had underestimated his real mental ability, as indicated on the Wechsler-Bellevue test. His better-than-average ability became evident to him as he examined the results of the test.

2. Goals and purposes:

To become a person who knows what he wants.

To get good marks in school.

Here they discussed the fact that he got his greatest satisfaction from outdoor activity. They considered the effect on these goals of failure in mathematics. This subject was useful to him:

- a. In passing examinations for college entrance.
- b. In raising his general score on the usual intelligence tests.
- c. In helping him to round out his general proficiency.

The counselor pointed out the importance of starting from the beginning and building a foundation in this field and made suggestions for tutoring and the use of workbooks.

3. Educational plans: Possibilities were—

- a. To enter an academy for the training of merchant seamen.
- b. To go to a college where he could major in physical education or recreational work and decide there more definitely about his vocation.

Here they discussed his poor high school record in contrast with his apparent scholastic aptitude. They also faced the fact that low achievement would make it difficult for him to get into college.

4. Family relationships: They faced the conflict between the goals his parents had in mind for him and his own inclinations. The questionnaire and the personality inventory both showed that he was sensitive to his parents' wishes, wanted to please them, and yet also wanted to go ahead with his own plans.

5. Vocational interests:

- a. Pilot or other vocation involving adventure at sea.
- b. Physical education coach and teacher.

They saw that being a coach might combine his own interests and those of his parents. They also noted that the interest blank showed no strong interests; this might mean that he was flexible in his vocational choice and might develop new interests as his experience grew.

Ninth interview: This was the final interview.

STANLEY. Good morning. This won't be the last one, will it?

COUNSELOR. Yes, I'm sorry that it must be, Stanley.

STANLEY. Oh, I had hoped—well, that you might have found you'd have some more time.

COUNSELOR. Did you have something in mind, Stanley?

STANLEY. No, ma'am, just that I think these talks have helped me a lot. I've been thinking about our talks, the way you said; and it seems to me that I know a lot more things now. Something else is funny, too. It used to be that I had to read my history a lot of times to get any sense out of it; but lately it seems that if I read it one time and then look over it, I know it almost perfect. My other subjects don't show much improvement yet, but I think they will. Maybe it's that I used to worry about the subject I was failing instead of working on my other subjects. (He again discussed the teaching methods that made the subject hard for him.) But now I've got it straight in my own mind that I'll drop math now and get workbooks so I can review it from

the beginning myself. Did you get the names of the books?
 COUNSELOR (*giving him the references*). I'm glad you're going to do the reviewing, Stanley. You will find it helpful on several counts.

STANLEY. My mother said I should have written down all the things you told me last time—that I probably got them mixed up. Is there any way she could come in and talk with you? She wants to, and I'd like her to, too.

COUNSELOR. I'd be very glad to talk with her if you would both like it, Stanley. I shall be here on Friday of this week. Why don't you see if she can come in then. I'll be glad to wait after school to see her, if that will be more convenient for her.

STANLEY. Gee, thanks a lot. I sure will; and I'll tell you Friday.

COUNSELOR. How does she feel about these talks we've been having?

STANLEY. She thinks they're a good idea except that I couldn't remember everything. We wrote to one college right away, but we haven't heard yet. What course do you think I should register in?

COUNSELOR (*Explained again that the first two years of college were fairly general and would lay the foundation for a number of vocations in which he was interested.*)

STANLEY. One of my relatives went to ——— University. I thought about seeing if there was any chance of a scholarship for sports there that I could get, the way he did. You know, I've changed. I'm learning about studying. It was mainly that I came to school just for the sports before. Now when I know I have some work to do, I don't put it off until the last minute. And when I sit down to study, I think about what we've said and it makes better sense. And it's easier to do. It sure helps. I always wanted to know what I could do, too; and now I have a better idea. Besides, I used to worry about what I was going to be and now I know that there are many things I might be. . . . Anyway, I don't feel as lost or queer about not making up my mind, now that I know others have been in the same boat. Funny, too, it did something else. You know, my girl's mother says that one thing she has against me is that I can't talk; but I don't have any trouble talking with you—we keep going, don't we?

COUNSELOR. Yes, we've kept going for nine periods now, Stanley.

STANLEY. Gee, has it been that many? Gosh, you wouldn't think you could talk just about school and the way you feel and such, that much. I sure have learned a lot, though; and it helps.

The bell rang at this point, and the counselor said she would like to hear how he made out and that she hoped he would stop in to see her if he wanted to talk things over further.

Perhaps the best summary of this series of interviews is the boy's own words, already quoted. He felt that some of his

anxiety about his vocational choice had been relieved, that he saw more clearly the possible courses of action he could take, and that he was able to study more efficiently. Equally important were the more hopeful idea he had acquired of himself and the satisfying experience of having been able to talk freely with an understanding person. These results were obtained because the counselor explained the counseling process to him, was a good listener, spoke the boy's language, entered into his feelings, and used tests and inventories only as they contributed to an understanding of his interests and ability. The boy, on his part, took an active responsibility in the counseling process and found the relationship itself a satisfying experience. The testing situations likewise proved to be experiences in which he found himself successful and interested. Expressing his thoughts and feelings in a secure counseling relation helped to relieve his anxiety about them.

The apparent loss of rapport at the beginning of the fifth interview may have been due to too much direction on the part of the counselor in the previous interview or to any of a number of other factors, such as disappointment over the failure of the tutoring plan or disturbing conditions at home or at school. It may have been because the suggested autobiography savored of a school assignment. At this point he may have thought of the counselor as a teacher who was interested only in his mastery of subject matter, instead of as a person interested in helping him to do the things he wanted to do and be the kind of person he wanted to become.

The interviewer might be criticized for not having talked with both parents and for not having worked with the teachers and administrators more closely. Actually, counseling in this school was difficult because of a lack of full and understanding cooperation on the part of the staff. The insight gained by the boy was all to the good, but it needed to be reinforced by all the persons in his environment working together.

There are two main avenues of adjustment: (1) reducing the environmental pressures and strains to a level at which the individual can cope with them, and (2) helping him to pull himself together and change his attitude toward himself and others. Mother Goose put it this way:

J For every evil under the sun
 There is a remedy—or, there is none.
 If there be one, go and find it,
 If there be none, never mind it.

COUNSELING STUDENTS WHO PRESENT SPECIAL PROBLEMS

Of the various problems of adolescents, many they solve themselves, some they talk over with parents and friends, a few they bring to a counselor in whom they have confidence, a few they discuss at the invitation or request of the counselor.

In their freely written compositions about themselves adolescents often manifest marked maturity in solving their own problems. The following compositions are only two of many that might be quoted:

When I first entered high school, I was very excited. I felt very grown up and important. High school to me was just football, baseball, and basketball games, plays, movies, and clubs. I soon realized differently though, when report time came around. I discovered two very ugly F's on my report, one in English and one in typing. I was at a loss as to what to do. I discussed it with our counselor and she helped to straighten me out. She told me that by taking an extra half credit a semester I could make these subjects up and then take speech in order to make up my English, for English is one subject that you must pass. Now I am in the twelfth semester and have made up the credits in typing and English. By my last semester I will be all straightened out and I now realize that the sports and fun of high school are important, but not as important as your homework and classwork.²

Recently I have been faced with a problem which seemed of great importance to me. I will graduate in February and have every hope of entering nursing school the same month. When I obtained information from the hospital where I hope to train, I discovered that I was lacking one credit in social studies. This came as a blow to me because I wanted so much to start in February instead of putting it off for a whole semester.

I don't believe that the lack of credit was my fault and I don't wish to put the blame on my adviser, but I had stated when I first came to this school that I wished to enter either medical school or nursing school. Since my adviser knew this, it seems to me that she should have made provisions for it in my long-range program.

² Ruth Strang, "Manifestations of Maturity in Adolescents," *Mental Hygiene*, 33:5/6, October, 1919.

When I spoke to the director of nurses about it, she told me that if my marks were high enough, I would be able to enter the school and make up the credit during my training. I hope I will be able to do this. If not, I must wait until September.

I believe that the school should have persons well equipped to advise the pupils as to the subjects they should take. They should know the requirements for the different schools and their courses. If they are not sure, they should have the information at hand where it could be found easily, before giving the wrong advice.*

To many a young person today, the words of Thomas Hardy must seem written for him:

I, a stranger and afraid
In a world I never made.

In this strange world each one needs someone who understands, and helps him to understand himself.

Adolescents need parents, even though they resent adult interference. One gifted fourteen-year-old girl described vividly the role her understanding parents played in helping her through this transition period. She said:

I was lucky—and I can thank my parents for it. Through the years, they had bored into me enough sense so that I finally realized what a silly fool I was being and cut it out P.D.Q. They didn't take me and say, "This is awful, you must stay home and never see those dreadful children again." They just let me go, having the faith that I would find out myself the hard way. Well, I did. And I'm glad in a way I went through it. I learned a lot of things from it, and learned them by experience, the best way to learn. . . .

. . . I think that parents are by far the most important. Every single kid I know who is in a mess, without any exception, has some kind of family trouble in one way or another. I think that my parents reared me the best way a child could be reared, and I will be eternally grateful. Ever since I could think for myself at all—I have. I've always made my own decisions, and carried them out, learning through experience. If my decisions were wrong, I soon found out—and I found out myself. I knew they were wrong, but if I had been told by my parents they were wrong, I would be very reluctant to accept it.

However, this had to be done tactfully—I mustn't get too independent—for, after all, I was and am young. Naturally, I don't know all the answers, and some wrong decisions, carried out without advice, would lead to serious consequences. So, somehow, my mother and father were so reasonable and understanding that,

* *Ibid.*, p. 567.

instead of reacting to this freedom by becoming wild and very distant from them, I became closer. And I confided in them more than average. This was because I realized that if I asked their advice about something it would be good, and yet I didn't have to worry that they would make any decision. . . . Truly, the children I feel genuine pity for . . . are those who don't feel that they can confide in their parents.⁴

The teacher, too, who is able to maintain this kind of relationship is a source of strength and stability to adolescents who desire support but resist domination. Too often parents and teachers unwittingly reinforce unhealthy trends. They encourage excessive docility or dependence by giving it their approval. By this misplaced sympathy they may reinforce the child's tendency to give up easily.

If the child's needs are not satisfied in constructive ways, they persist as drives to secure affection, attention, prestige, security, adventure, power. Karen Horney⁵ has described three attitudes, any one of which may become predominant and determine conduct. They are manifested in different degrees and combinations:

1. The tendency to move toward people. Those in whom this attitude predominates cling to others, expecting their personal relationships to solve their problems. They comply readily; never feel sure of themselves. They are preoccupied with what others expect them to think, and try to develop qualities that make them lovable. They are soft, generous, considerate. They are the "good" children—affectionate, sympathetic, compliant to all appearances. Underneath, however, they may have sharp claws that hurt other people.

2. The tendency to move against people. These individuals see the world as hostile, and become aggressive. By making themselves strong, they are able to fight, dominate, exploit. They value strength, power, relentlessness; they show contempt for weakness, yieldingness.

3. The tendency to move away from people. Persons with this attitude withdraw, want to be left alone, do not face their

⁴ Ruth Strang, *Investing in Yourself*, pp. 80-81. Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1943.

⁵ Karen Horney, *Our Inner Conflicts*. W. W. Norton and Company, New York, 1945.

conflicts with reference to people. They avoid close ties, live secluded lives. Under their surface solicitude for others, they may take sadistic pleasure in frustrating the expectations and joys of others. Their withdrawal may be an unconscious effort to avoid conflicts that would be precipitated by closer contacts.

These trends are present in varying degrees in all people. They become more perceptible during adolescence.

In order to understand an adolescent it is important to know the answers to these questions:

1. In which direction is he moving?
2. Which self is acceptable to him; which unacceptable?
3. If his more acceptable self coincides with cultural demands, are there other strong trends within him that are causing conflict?
4. What is he doing to resolve the conflict?

Adolescence is a flexible transition period. Therein lies its danger and its opportunity. Development may take a turn for better or for worse. Its direction depends largely on conditions in the home, school, and neighborhood, and on guidance.

Emotionally Disturbed Students. When, without adequate cause, a student cries frequently; is restless, worried, lacking in self-confidence, timid, stubborn, withdrawing; has temper tantrums; or shows other signs of emotional immaturity or disturbance, the teacher-counselor tries to understand why. Emotional instability may arise from feelings of insecurity or need for affection or recognition. Often an adolescent clings to childish ways because he has not learned more mature ways of coping with the complexities of his enlarging world. Emotional behavior is the individual's way of getting something he wants or of coping with a disturbing condition. From his observation of students and his conversation with them, the sensitive teacher-counselor can recognize those who need individual help. If these cases are neglected in their early stages, the chances of successful treatment are greatly reduced.

Accordingly, the teacher should be alert to note those students who give the impression of being "queer" or different from adolescents they have known, those who show sudden changes in their behavior, and those who seem to be becoming

increasingly withdrawn, unhappy, moody. Some time ago George K. Pratt gave a useful list of "danger signals" that teacher-counselors should recognize as possible indications of nervous breakdowns.* Among the most serious he placed overconscientiousness, various kinds of morbid guilt reactions, and extremely "model" behavior. Second to these, and equally important in some cases, are seclusive, withdrawing, or shut-in tendencies. Individuals showing these tendencies are "poor mixers," retreat into themselves, and brood when criticized or scolded. Marked depression and persistent, pervasive feelings of inferiority or discouragement likewise should be regarded as possible danger signals. An intense, exclusive interest in religion may indicate emotional disturbance. The appearance of "queer" habits, such as excessive hand-washing, fear of dirt or germs, and a compulsive urge to arrange objects always in a particular order, will cause the teacher-counselor justifiable concern. Inability to talk about anxieties and conflicts may also indicate emotional disturbance.

The teacher, however, should try to distinguish between pervasive, persistent tendencies that do not improve under the best environmental conditions that he can provide, and behavior that represents merely transitory phases of development. The first require expert help while the second can be treated by "mental hygiene first aid." It is the responsibility of the teacher-counselor to recognize danger signals, obtain whatever expert service is available, refer the case skillfully, and cooperate intelligently in the treatment.

In brief, the teacher-counselor contributes to the emotional development of students in several ways:

- By being so well adjusted himself that he does not create problems in his students.
- By understanding child and adolescent behavior so that he does not reinforce detrimental trends.
- By detecting early signs of emotional disturbance.
- By making adjustments in the group that are generally helpful.
- By counseling individuals.

* George K. Pratt, "Nervous Breakdown: A Teen Age Danger," *Parents*, 6: 14-15, March, 1931.

By skillfully referring serious cases for whatever expert assistance is available.

Since understanding of behavior is essential to helping children grow up emotionally, the teacher-counselor should have knowledge of the influence of family attitudes and relationships and of the deeper meaning of common kinds of behavior. For example, the "spoiled" child is often the child who has not been loved and cherished. He may have an abundance of material things but keeps demanding more to fill his emotional lack. On the other hand, the child who has grown up with plenty of real affection in his home is likely to be poised, considerate, cooperative.

Belligerent, chip-on-the-shoulder behavior often masks a deep feeling of inferiority. In time the arrogant, superior, cocksure attitude breaks down and may be followed by depression, doubt, resentment, bitterness. People often avoid an individual like this and thus accentuate his difficulty. Or he may become resigned and adjust on a lower level of aspiration, or withdraw from people and seek superiority through studiousness or the development of some special skill. He needs help in understanding why he behaves as he does.

The overconscientious student's excessive effort to do the right thing is often encouraged by teachers who do not perceive the possible dangers ahead. Carried to excess, this tendency results in a growing detachment from social life and an unsatisfactory adjustment to reality. Fortunately, there are many opportunities for these individuals to satisfy their need to be of service through social activities that contribute to a well-rounded personality.

The student who is overdependent upon affection finds other kinds of success meaningless. All his interests, energies, and feelings center around the person to whom he has attached himself. He overreacts to frustration, shows undue despair and depression over a slight disappointment, feels humiliated when his affection is not reciprocated, fears being alone, feels that he lives in a hostile world. He may try hard to be loving and friendly, but he cannot succeed because he is too egocentric, too much concerned with his own fears. It takes a most skillful psychotherapist to help him see his poten-

tialities for more satisfying relations. Once he perceives himself more hopefully, he will be better able to cope with the harmful, crippling aspects of his overdependence.

One form of the so-called "crush" represents the tendency to cling to a member of the same sex. It may be an evidence of failure to establish the masculine or feminine role, or of need for affection or for an outlet for sexual energy. Its incidence is highest in segregated schools and camps or other situations in which access to the opposite sex is limited. In its mild form, such a "crush" may be regarded as a normal transitional stage of development, bridging the gap between attachment to the parent and the eventual marriage relationship. In its extreme and pathological form, it is recognized as homosexuality.

These different layers of intensity in the homosexual trend require different treatment. At the normal end of the scale, it can be utilized as a step in growth. When the friendship is becoming too exclusive, the individual can be helped to see how much more he or she can grow through contacts with persons of varied interests. Sometimes what seems to be a homosexual trend is only a delayed or arrested development that yields quite readily to treatment. When the tendency is deep-seated, a psychotherapist is needed to help the individual recognize homosexual tendencies as part of his makeup and total adjustment. When there are no psychotic elements, therapy is likely to be successful. Endocrine treatment has been disappointing.

Unless integration of the personality takes place through the great natural forces—work, play, love, religion—aided by the counseling process, adolescent turmoil may be prolonged into adult life.

Social Relations. Failure in social relationships, as has already been suggested, is usually a symptom of more deep-seated causes. Insecurity may underlie the behavior of the girl who is "boy-crazy" as well as of the one who is "boy-shy." In the case of a college girl who was moving rapidly toward promiscuity, the following factors seemed to be involved: anxiety about her health and social status, rejection by her mother and by the college, inability to attract the boy in whom she was really interested, anxiety about not living up to the role

she was expected to play in life, some confusion about her sex role, actual fear of the sex relation, and a sense of emptiness that she thought a love relationship might fill. This girl was obviously bothered by her sex relationships and wanted to talk about her perplexities with a person who was objective and could help her to handle the situation. She needed to get a clear idea of her more acceptable self, to recognize the plus values in her experiences, and to learn how these experiences could contribute to her development.

In dealing with sex problems many teacher-counselors make the mistake of trying to deal with sex as a separate aspect of life rather than as part of the individual's total personality, his family relations, and the culture in which he lives.

Another common mistake is to ignore the student's present attitude and information about sex. Fritz Redl⁷ compared counseling in this area to packing a suitcase that is already half full. Instead of jamming in more things, the sensible person would first sort out what is already in the suitcase and then repack it. Similarly, the counselor should encourage the student to tell how he feels, or how boys and girls of his age feel, about sex.

Masturbation is another way in which many children and adolescents get satisfaction that should be obtained on a higher level of maturity. Often the teacher-counselor will find that the practice itself is a serious cause of anxiety. Worry about it absorbs intellectual energy and may lead to failure in academic subjects. Glib, general reassurance usually does not help; specific reassurance about the aspects of masturbation that are bothering the student and a clear-cut rejection of unsound beliefs often does help.

The counselor can obtain important clues to the individual's social relations by observing other persons' responses to him. For example, Mary's isolation from the other children became more apparent as she grew older. Her only pleasure in life seemed to be reading books that she got from the public library. Recognizing her need for social contacts, the eighth

⁷ Fritz Redl, "The Technique of Sex Education," in *Sex Education: Facts and Attitudes* (Revised), pp. 24-28. Child Study Association of America, New York, 1940.

grade teacher asked her to take charge of the small school library, with several girls assisting her. Success in this work resulted in a changed attitude and better relationships with other pupils.

The teacher-counselor realizes that he cannot make a boy or girl popular. In fact, if he gives special attention to the student in need of social approval, he may actually mark him as "teacher's pet" and alienate him from his peers. It is better to form small congenial groups and provide suitable activities for these individuals. In the junior high school, where differences in maturity, background, and interest are so great, it is especially difficult to develop the social program. With such a diverse group, it is necessary to provide a variety of recreation for young people at different stages of development.

The other approach to improved social relations is through counseling, group discussions, and role-playing of social situations. A knowledge of social usage and simple technics of getting along with people often help a "shy guy" or girl to express their real friendliness.

Family Relations. Some of the home problems of students are indicated by quotations from high school pupils:

The financial problems of the family concern me; also my difficulty in certain subjects in my school work and a serious inferiority complex about myself and life in general.

The school could help by showing more personal interest and considering a child's home training before condemning him.

My parents have been having trouble lately and may separate. Then I may have to live with my brother and leave school here. I should like to have a long talk with Miss Hansen and see if there was some way I could talk to my parents and keep them together.

Adolescents are frequently in conflict with other members of the family. They complain about parents who persist in their possessiveness or insist on adherence to old-world customs or beliefs that run counter to the modern world. Some have problems of competing with a brighter older brother or sister or feel displaced by a younger, more engaging child.

They less frequently recognize more subtle family influences that may be even more detrimental. When parents do not accept a child for what he is, when they try to make him

what he is not, when they give him the impression that he is valued only for what he can do, not for himself, they often create anxiety and insecurity. The child senses that achievement is precarious, depending upon the suitability of the tasks assigned and the group in which he happens to be placed. Some parents openly reject the less able or attractive child of the family. They may characterize him as stupid, "dumb," awkward, selfish; and he may be so in comparison with the rest of the family. Nevertheless, it is his inalienable right as a human being to be given opportunities to develop his best potentialities, however limited they are. Some recent experiments in animal psychology suggest that the most serious deprivation of all is acceptance followed by rejection. For example, the teacher who is at first completely accepting and friendly and then suddenly clamps down often experiences an extreme reaction of hostility on the part of the individuals or group subjected to this sudden change of attitude.

Many parents are at fault, to be sure. But it does not help matters to blame them. Instead, the counselor should reinforce family integrity whenever possible, as, for example, by a word or two in praise of some good quality in the father or mother. When a gifted child says disdainfully that he is not like other members of the family, the counselor should help him to analyze this attitude and discover why he feels as he does toward his less gifted family.

When a child is rejected because of lack of ability or attractiveness, the teacher-counselor may help him to accept himself and to attain success along some line which the family prize. The individual is rare, indeed, who does not have some good features. Many homely children have become "distinguished," "chic," or "smart" by giving thought to their personal appearance. It is especially important for the physically handicapped child to be groomed and dressed as attractively as possible.

The counselor can frequently help the child or adolescent develop a more understanding attitude toward his mother—to recognize that: "Mother has difficulty in showing her love for you." "Mother has troubles of her own." One girl, for example, was able to see how *cruel* her mother had been, yet

realize that she had not wanted to be cruel. She took a more sympathetic attitude toward her mother, and no longer felt so guilty about her past behavior and resentment toward her mother.

In the case of a boy who was going through the process of psychological separation from his mother, a counselor was able to interpret skillfully his new insight. At one point the counselor said, "Don't you think this feeling of respect for your mother, which you now have, is more mature than your earlier feelings?" Thus the counselor reinforced the boy's new strivings for independence and helped him to work out his family relationships. At the same time the counselor, at the boy's request, talked with the mother and helped her to realize that when the boy discontinued his childish expression of affection it did not mean he no longer loved her.

In some cases little progress can be made in a student's school adjustment until attitudes or other conditions in the home are changed. The teacher-counselor may have one or two helpful interviews with parents, but he must rely on social workers and psychiatrists to make any fundamental changes in deep-seated parental attitudes and home conditions. The role of the teacher is developmental; it is to help parents help their children grow up right.

Health. The need for health counseling is evident in every survey of health conditions. Health problems are prevalent. Marked progress has been made in the control of communicable diseases, but accidents, mental disorders, and heart disease and cancer are increasing. Health conditions enter into every counseling situation. No matter what the apparent problem, attention should be given to the student's physical condition. Body, mind, and spirit are inseparable—this is the modern psychosomatic emphasis.

Every student should keep a basic, cumulative health record on which the school physician, private physician, camp doctor, physical education teacher, and others concerned with his health, record his health status and achievements. Such a record helps to coordinate the work of health specialists and serves as an incentive to the individual to improve his physical condition.

The teacher-counselor who is not an expert in health education should never prescribe diets or treatment. His role is to encourage the student to take responsibility for his own health and to help him to make intelligent use of available resources for its improvement. The counselor's work should be reinforced by an effective program of health instruction and health service.*

Discipline Problems (see also pages 127-130). A great deal of behavior that disturbs the class and the teacher is a natural reaction to school as the student perceives it. Under certain conditions, rebellion is a sign of healthy growth. The teacher need not look for deep-seated causes of transitory surface behavior; he can deal with it in the group. However, if the behavior persists and seems to be affecting the individual or the group unfavorably, the teacher-counselor may work along these general lines:

1. Help the individual to understand why he behaved in that way: When did he begin to act that way? What led to the behavior? Under what circumstances does he misbehave? How does he feel about it? What seem to be the motives underlying the behavior? What satisfactions does he get from it? How is the behavior related to the kind of person he wants to become? How is his behavior affecting others?

2. Remove or change, so far as possible, conditions that give rise to the undesirable behavior; as, for example, an inappropriate program of academic work or overemphasis on competition.

3. Establish a counseling relationship (see pages 244-246) in which the student achieves a new and better orientation toward himself and others.

Certain kinds of misbehavior occur frequently in schools and colleges: stealing, cheating, being tardy or truant, disturbing the group by "showing off," being rude, or having temper tantrums. A few suggestions for the understanding of these kinds of behavior may be helpful.

Stealing may arise from many different causes: actual need of the stolen articles, equally real need of clothing and spend-

* Margaret L. Leonard, *Health Counseling for Girls*. A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1944.

ing money to maintain status in the group, desire for adventure, conformity to the values of a gang, disturbance over sex questions. Obviously a kindly talk and a discussion of how wrong it is to steal will not solve the problem; the counselor must deal with the causes, not the symptoms.

Cheating may indicate an unsuitable curriculum and poor methods of instruction coupled with pressure at home to achieve high marks. The school may also be at fault in putting too much stress on marks and examinations rather than on individual growth. If personal development is emphasized, the futility of cheating becomes obvious. The morale of the group and the prevalent attitude toward cheating are determining factors—"It just isn't done" *versus* "Everybody cheats."

Tardiness and truancy likewise often have their roots in an unsuitable curriculum and ineffective methods of teaching. Tardiness among children of low intelligence was practically eliminated in one school by making the first period in the morning highly interesting. The pupils came willingly and promptly to school. School tasks were associated with pleasantness rather than with unpleasantness.

Much tardiness and absence are the fault of the parent, not the child. Irregularity of parental habits and schedules makes it difficult for some children to get to school on time. One principal suggested that the mother buy an alarm clock which should be set for going to bed as well as for getting up. The younger the child, of course, the more dependent he is upon the parents' habits of life. It is easy to see how unjust it might be to blame a child for absence or tardiness before investigating the causes (see pages 3-4).

One teacher handled the attendance problem in the following way: Miss Ramsey had in her homeroom forty tenth grade girls between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. Throughout the school, absence was a serious problem that had been handled unsuccessfully in an administrative instead of a guidance way. Each homeroom teacher reported her cases to the office, where a school-wide list of absentees was mimeographed each day and distributed to all teachers the following morning. The individual teachers checked their class attendance records of the previous day against this list to ascertain the "cutters." The student who had cut a class was reported to the office and to her official teacher. The office presumably took action after the third report was re-

ceived for the same student. This system had not reduced absence because no positive attitudes toward good attendance had been built, classes were not made sufficiently vital and important to the students, and the number of absentees was so large that it was impossible to confer with each one.

Under these conditions, Miss Ramsey attempted to improve attendance in her own room. After talking individually with several of her student leaders, she presented the problem frankly to the homeroom class as one on which she needed their help. What would they suggest? They decided to divide into committees, each trying to find a solution which they would report in dramatic form to the class. For two weeks they spent the homeroom period in committee work with the teacher serving as consultant. Then the programs began. One of the programs took the form of an "absentee clinic," in which one student presented his problem and the others served as a "board of advisers." Another committee presented statistics on the number of days of absence and the causes of absence. They obtained these data by interviewing each student who had missed a class. They analyzed the reasons and showed how each kind of absence could be avoided in the future.

While this group work was going on, Miss Ramsey interviewed individually the students who showed no improvement in their attendance record. For example, Jane had often been absent from school and had been reported for cutting classes on numerous occasions. From the records, Miss Ramsey noted that Jane was the oldest girl in the class and also the most intelligent. She had lost a year in elementary school because of illness and another year in high school because of poor attendance. In the first interview Jane assumed the attitude that after all, it was her own business whether or not she attended classes. Miss Ramsey said she thought a girl of Jane's maturity and intelligence should have more insight than the average student into the values of a high school education. This comment seemed to release much pent-up feeling. Jane told about her belief that she was "dumb," her desire to get ahead, her feeling of inferiority because she was older than the others, her wish to graduate from high school. After listening with genuine understanding and acceptance Miss Ramsey asked Jane whether she would want to tackle an accelerated program and graduate in one and a half years. Jane was thrilled at the suggestion. Miss Ramsey obtained the vice-principal's consent on the condition that Jane would demonstrate her ability to apply herself to school work for the remainder of the term. She and Jane talked over the responsibility of undertaking an accelerated program; the final decision was left to her.

Jane was challenged by the opportunity and determined to justify Miss Ramsey's confidence in her. She applied herself con-

scientiously to her work and finished the term with but one absence. According to the agreement, she entered the accelerated program the next term. Miss Ramsey kept in touch with Jane and was confident that she would complete the program successfully.

This teacher attacked the problems of absence from both the preventive and remedial sides, by group work methods and by counseling. By studying the records as a background for skillful interviews, she tried to discover vital interests on which to build a more successful school experience.

Behavior such as disturbing the group by making silly remarks, interrupting, or talking while someone else has the floor may also be primarily a curriculum problem. If a child fails to respond to suitable subject matter and instruction, other possible causes should be explored. Unless the teacher knows the motives underlying the student's conduct, he is likely to do the wrong thing.

"Showing off" is another way in which students express their needs. Sometimes this kind of behavior is associated with reading difficulty which should be diagnosed and corrected. Too frequently teachers take the attitude, "He could do better if he tried." Actually, such a student cannot do better until he is helped to understand his difficulty and correct it through remedial work.

Rudeness, too, requires understanding. If the teacher recognizes possible underlying causes of rudeness, he will not become angry about it. He will make sure his requests are reasonable and not be afraid to admit he is wrong. Home relations are likely to be involved; a negative attitude toward the teacher may be a reflection of antagonism toward a parent. The morale of the school enters in here, too; in some schools rudeness is socially taboo.

Temper tantrums become less frequent as the child becomes more mature. The teacher-counselor needs to understand the underlying reasons for this behavior. While angry, the individual is usually not accessible to counseling. When he is calm again, he may be glad to consider how he can overcome this personality "fault line." If the teacher realizes that the child himself is often anxious and frightened by his uncontrolled expressions of emotion, he will be more sym-

pathetic than stern. In certain families an emotional outburst is the adolescent's only means of getting the things he needs for his best development.

Backward or Handicapped Students. In counseling students with physical, mental, or emotional impairments, the teacher-counselor needs facts about the handicap and resources for dealing with it. He should know when the defect appeared. If a child is born with a physical abnormality he is more likely to become adjusted to it and to have a less difficult problem of habit revision than if he acquires it later in life. The teacher should also know about the child's environment. If the child's parents accept the handicap and help him to accept it, they make his adjustment much easier. In a sense, every child is exceptional and should be helped to grow up in his own best way. The handicapped child should be given preparation for leading a life as nearly normal and complete as his handicap will allow. If he is overprotected, if things are done for him that he can do himself, he is likely to get the idea that he is not capable or competent. He should have opportunity to be of service to others and feel that he is needed.

In counseling the mentally retarded child, it is important for the teacher-counselor to obtain medical and psychological information on the nature of the retardation. The physician has data that indicate whether the retardation is likely to get progressively worse; the psychologist supplies information on how the individual's mind works under certain standardized conditions. There is always the possibility that the retardation was caused by early emotional disturbance. A few cases have been reported in which supposedly feeble-minded children began to learn when placed in a permissive, accepting environment. Behavior problems are often associated with mental deficiency because the demands of the environment are not appropriate to the individual's mental capacity. In a favorable institutional environment misconduct tends to decrease.

One of the teacher's most difficult guidance tasks is to tell a parent that his child is mentally retarded. For the most part, the parents of mentally retarded children do not want an accurate measure of their child's mental status in years and

months. They really want an understanding of their own emotional needs. The main purpose of the first interview, therefore, is to help the parents to accept the child as he is. Eventually this acceptance should enable the parents to work out a plan that they can carry out independently.

The successful interpretive interview usually follows a sequence somewhat like this:

1. A recognition of the parent's concern about the child: "You are naturally worried about Tom's lack of progress, aren't you?" This convinces the parent that the interviewer understands his problem and is in sympathy with him.
2. A clarification of the parent's feeling about the problem: "Just what is it about Tom's development that concerns you most?" This enables the parent to bring out his major and minor concerns, all of which are accepted by the worker as worthy of attention. Toward the end of the parent's explanation the worker may ask, "What age child do you think Tom is like now?"
3. A request from the parent for specific information about the child's mental status: The parent may first ask the general question, "What do you think his mental ability is?" To this question the worker may reply, "He can do the sort of things that a six-year-old child usually does." He does not use the technical words describing mental retardation but speaks of the child as one who is "slow to learn."
4. A request for more specific information on what the child will be able to do: The worker may go over with the parents some of the things they know the child can do, and mention some of the tasks on the tests that he could and could not do. He emphasizes the things the child can do, but usually does not try to predict the child's future development.
5. Discussion of what should be done: This follows directly from the consideration of what the child can do and can learn. The parent should be encouraged to express his opinion and describe any plans he has in mind. If the plans are sound, the worker can assist in carrying them out.
6. Encouraging the parent to express his feeling of responsibility for the child's retardation—usually a feeling that is based on misconceptions. It may relieve the parent's feeling

These cases illustrate the importance of parental attitudes and of previous personality trends of handicapped students. The teacher-counselor should be aware of these influences and should build on the favorable trends. For persons of limited potentialities, long-range planning is essential.

Particularly difficult to place in a suitable environment are adolescents of border-line intelligence who are emotionally immature. They are impulsive, excitable, and emotionally and intellectually naïve. They are not psychotic enough for a mental hospital and have too high an IQ for admission to a state school for the feeble-minded. In some instances they may be taken care of in a community project handled by a state school. Under supervision of this kind they may be prevented from getting into serious trouble. These serious cases of mental and emotional retardation require continuous and expert service.

Gifted Students. It is a challenge and a joy to counsel gifted students. They can take considerable responsibility for their own guidance and for thinking through their personal perplexities. That a gifted child should be a behavior problem is a serious reflection on the home and the school. Some of the conditions that cause maladjustment in children of high intelligence are illustrated by the following case.

When Clarence was in the seventh grade, his teacher said, "That boy has killed the morale of my class this year. No one can do anything with him." On the Kuhlmann-Anderson tests his IQ was 157, which was practically the same as an individual Binet IQ obtained in a lower grade. His classmates as well as his teacher were hostile and antagonistic to him. He seemed to be completely unacceptable in his class. This rejection by the class seemed to arise from a number of factors—his excessive overweight, poor muscular coordination, lack of skill in sports—all deficiencies that tend to contribute to unpopularity in boys of his age. Although he was mentally superior, he preferred to associate with younger children and frequently fought with boys of his own age. A condition at home that had contributed to his present behavior was his mother's attitude, first of rejection and later of overprotection. He spent all his time with her; she participated in all his activities, made all his plans and decisions for him, and concentrated on the development of his mental ability to the neglect of his other needs. She was emotionally unstable and dominated her husband, who eventually packed up and walked out. The father had a friendly

relation with his son but felt there was nothing he could do about family conditions.

This was clearly a problem which the teacher-counselor could not handle alone. Perhaps the teacher could help Clarence work out better relations with his classmates, and provide him with suitable books and other materials for independent work through which he could make a social contribution. The teacher might also look for an appropriate boarding school and help mother and son to see the advantages of it.

Gifted students may be encouraged to engage in "research" projects. They may be allowed to take a fifth subject—art, music, typing, industrial arts, or home economics. Their program may be enriched through library permits which enable them to do reading of their own choosing in school time. While thus providing for their intellectual development, the teacher should be careful not to reinforce narrow academic preoccupations. The student activity program offers opportunity for all-round development of these children.

In counseling gifted students the teacher should distinguish between the genuinely gifted and those who make a high score on intelligence tests through coaching or a kind of mental forced feeding. The naturally bright child of between 130 and 150 IQ is likely to be physically, socially, and emotionally superior. The child who has been overstimulated mentally by ambitious parents is likely to be physically and socially below par and unpleasantly precocious.

For children on the very high levels—above 170—social adjustment is difficult because of the wide gap between their thinking and that of their associates. It is hard for them to be patient and tolerant of stupidity. Because they do not find the activities of their age group satisfying, they tend to withdraw into reading and other solitary pursuits. The teacher-counselor can help these children see that success in almost every vocation depends, to a great extent, on ability to understand all sorts of people and that many of the satisfactions of life come from warm human relations.

All superior children need help in building a sense of responsibility for their gifts. "They are not their own." Their advantages entail obligations. If students of superior ability

really believed this, there would be less discrepancy between ability and academic achievement than is found at present.

EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Educational guidance is an intrinsic part of developmental guidance. Its special emphasis is on self-realization through appropriate education. The first part of the process—discovery of one's potentialities—has been described on pages 247 to 261. The second part—collecting and classifying up-to-date, accurate information about educational opportunities—will be briefly described here.¹⁰ The third part—fitting the educational opportunities to the individual—is the counseling process, which has already been described.

The teacher-counselor is dependent upon standardized and informal tests for verification of his general impressions of a student's ability and achievement. After studying these sources of information, he will use the interview to help the student arrive at an accurate and realistic appraisal of his potentialities. Then both are ready to study educational opportunities in the light of the student's learning ability and vocational plans.

Making Plans for Further Education. Each teacher-counselor cannot be expected to collect and classify the vast amount of information about colleges, preparatory schools, business training schools, vocational schools, and apprenticeship opportunities. The director of guidance, full-time educational and vocational counselor, dean of girls or dean of boys, librarian, or a committee should be responsible for building up a convenient and complete file of current information accessible to teacher-counselors and students. This information should be kept in the central guidance office. A duplicate file might well be kept in an alcove of the library.

This file of information about a wide range of educational opportunities should include the following kinds of source material:

¹⁰ For a more detailed treatment, see Ruth Strang, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*, Chapter III. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1946.

- ALSOP, GULIELMA F., AND MCBRIDE, MARY F. *She's Off to College; A Girl's Guide to College Life*. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1940. 275 pp. Contents include getting started, social life, personal life.
- BOGUE, JESSE P. (Editor). *American Junior Colleges* (Second Edition). American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1948. 537 pp. Includes information about 564 accredited junior colleges: accreditation, history, calendar, requirements, fees, staff, fields of instruction, graduation, and enrollment.
- BRUMBAUGH, A. J. (Editor). *American Universities and Colleges* (Fifth Edition). American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1948. 1054 pp. Pertinent information about 820 accredited institutions.
- The College Entrance Examination Board Terms of Admission to the Member Colleges*. College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street, New York 27, N.Y., 1949. 287 pp. Supplement to the 1949 Handbook: *Changes in Terms of Admission to the Member Colleges for 1950*. 106 pp.
- COWLING, DONALD J., AND DAVIDSON, CARTER. *Colleges for Freedom; A Study of Purposes, Practices, and Needs*. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1947. 180 pp. A study of the four-year liberal arts college—the plant, faculty and students, curricula, and ideals. Suggestions as to a satisfactory college, with its finances, staff, courses, and activities.
- EMERSON, SUZANNE GOULD. *Off to College*. John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1949. 149 pp. Up-to-date practical advice written for high school girls. Material on studies, clothes, social life, and other subjects. The appendix is a chart giving useful statistics on one hundred colleges.
- COON, CARTER V. *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1945. 681 pp. A guide to about 1,700 institutions of collegiate level, giving information about type of institution, admission of veterans, costs, housing arrangements, student aid, and other topics.
- GREENLEAF, WALTER J. *Working Your Way Through College and Other Means of Providing for College Expenses*. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 210. Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 4. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1941. 175 pp.
- HURT, WILLIAM HUBER, AND ABBOTT, MARION E. *The College Blue Book*, Sixth Edition—1950. Christian E. Burckel, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1949. 464 pp. A standard reference for high school counselors.
- LOVEJOY, CLARENCE EARLE. *Lovejoy's Complete Guide to American Colleges and Universities*. Simon and Schuster, New York, 1948. 158 pp. Costs of going to college, scholarships, picking or choosing—why this college or that, and the business of admissions.
- Patterson's American Educational Directory*, Vol. XLVIII. Field Enterprises, Inc., 35 East Wacker Drive, Chicago 1, 1951. 814 pp. Published continually since 1904. Contains the names of thousands of school executives, college presidents, and deans of admissions. A "Who's Who" in American education and educational business. Lists of all types of

colleges and universities—public, private, and endowed schools and colleges.

SARGENT, PORTER. *A Handbook of Private Schools for American Boys and Girls* (1950-51; an annual survey). Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon Street, Boston, 1950. 1017 pp. Published annually; includes discussion of current issues, geographically arranged list of 1200 leading schools; special schools for the retarded, mentally deficient, physically handicapped.

Each folder containing information about separate educational institutions that students are likely to attend should include: latest catalogue, supplementary booklets describing the institution, articles about it from newspapers and magazines, excerpts from letters or interviews from former graduates who are attending it, reports of visits.

Charts and summary sheets should be prepared to answer questions that constantly arise in educational counseling, such as the following:

- What schools, or colleges, or training centers offer the best preparation along certain lines: art, home economics, engineering, etc.?
- What schools can I attend within a given annual cost range?
- What scholarships and fellowships are available?
- How well do former graduates of this school succeed in different higher educational institutions?
- What institutions offer a good type of social life for rather shy students who need the experience of working and playing with members of both sexes?
- What institutions offer valuable educational experiences for students whose mental ability is average or below the average of the general population of college freshmen?

With the suggested sources of information at hand, the student can find the facts he needs in order to make a sound long-term educational plan.

Although study of the pupil's learning ability and consideration of educational opportunities appropriate to it go on continuously, there are certain times when special attention should be given to educational plans. At the end of the eighth grade, under the eight-four plan, pupils reach the end of the elementary school. At this point many rural pupils leave

school; others have to make a choice between high schools and other educational opportunities. At the end of the ninth grade, under the six-three-three plan, a still wider choice of high schools and vocational training is offered. No sooner have pupils entered high school than they have to begin making plans for the years beyond high school. These plans should include a consideration of what they are going to get out of further education as well as of how they are going to get into the school or training center of their choice. After two years of general education in college, specialization leading to certain vocations is of major concern.

At each of these points the teacher-counselor should take time to consider with the students individually and in groups their abilities and interests, their past achievements and satisfactions, their present program and circumstances, and their future goals and educational and vocational plans. In high school a series of meetings may be planned on such topics as current college entrance requirements, scholarships, how to fill out a college application blank. Reports from former graduates on certain colleges make a very worthwhile kind of meeting.

The teacher-counselor in the higher school, who has had no previous contact with the student, is usually given little cumulative personnel data about him and sees him only for a short registration period. The teacher-counselor in the lower school is usually the best person to help the student make a tentative program for the higher institution. For example, the eighth grade teacher in the elementary school, after helping the pupils to analyze their interests and abilities and discussing with them the vocational and avocational implications of high school subjects offered by schools in the vicinity, encourages them to make out a tentative enrollment blank. The teacher checks each pupil's plan, keeping in mind his chances of success in the chosen subjects, his vocational interests, and the course requirements, and noting whether there are conflicts in time. During later years students tend to go for educational guidance to the member of the faculty whom they know best.

The following is part of an interview with a high school

junior who had, up to this time, taken it for granted that he would go to college. He was now becoming anxious about his ability to enter and succeed in college:

COUNSELOR. Making a decision to go to college is mighty important. You are deciding to invest four years of your life and from \$1,000 to \$5,000. You're right in considering whether you'll be admitted and whether you're likely to succeed.

BILL. I know it costs money to go to college and lots of people drop out before they graduate. But people who amount in anything go to college. And Mom is determined that I go to college. Dad did. But I don't know whether I've got what it takes to go to college. No matter what my test scores are, Mom would still want me to go to college, so that's what I'll probably do anyway.

COUNSELOR. You feel you've got to go to college somehow.

BILL. Yes, but my high school marks are low. I didn't take time to study, and the teachers think they're talking to college students and not to average high school kids. If they'd teach more and test less, I'd be able to learn, maybe.

COUNSELOR. You think you'd learn better if you had better teachers.

BILL. Yes, but college teachers might be worse, mightn't they?

COUNSELOR. They might expect the students to learn more independently.

BILL. That's it. So I ought to find out whether I can learn even if the teacher doesn't explain things well.

COUNSELOR. You want to sort of experiment now, to see whether you can learn if you put your mind on it.

BILL. Yes. That's something I ought to find out. And how I stand in the kind of tests that colleges give to students who want to enter.

COUNSELOR. That could be arranged. Your class is going to take one of those examinations in a few weeks. Stop and let me know how you get along in classes when you really put your mind on the work. If you discover you need help in reading and study methods, go to see Mrs. Wills. She's especially good along that line.

At a later date, when all the evidence collected pointed toward non-academic ability and interests, the counselor encouraged the boy to think about a number of factors: the kinds of jobs he might obtain after graduation from high school, his mother's inability to finance a college education for him, and opportunities to learn while earning. The father was dead and a friend of the family had offered the boy a job in which he would have a chance to develop his knack of getting along with people. All these and other related factors he considered in making his decision.

Reading and Study Difficulties. Failure to learn may stem from many causes. Some of these lie in the curriculum and methods of instruction, rather than in the students. There may be little actual or apparent connection between the subjects they study and their real interests. Instruction may be poor, the subject load too heavy, or the marking system geared too high. If students determine their own learning tasks, they tend to learn more readily and rapidly. Other causes are physical, intellectual, or emotional.

The general pattern of counseling already described is appropriate here also. The following procedure may be modified to meet the needs and expectations of individual students:

A. Before the first interview:

1. Check on health and physical condition. Examine the student's health record, noting nutritional condition, recent illness, visual and auditory efficiency, and physician's recommendations. Find out whether recommendations have been carried out and remediable defects corrected. Refer student for further examinations if necessary.

2. Study the student's cumulative personnel record. If there is a good record system, this study will yield valuable information: trends in marks in different subjects; results of standardized intelligence, achievement, and reading tests; part-time work experience, hobbies, and interests; educational and vocational plans; goals and purposes; participation in extraclass activities; family background; and more or less information on personality trends. The teacher-counselor may unify all the available information that may have a bearing on the student's reading and study difficulty on the Reading Diagnostic Record.¹¹ Thus he may obtain an appreciation of the student's learning ability and of factors that are influencing his reading and study efficiency.

3. If possible, talk with the student's teachers informally or in a case conference to obtain information on his performance in their subjects, his relationship with classmates, and any special abilities or difficulties which they have noted. This may be done before or after the interview.

¹¹ Ruth Strang and Others, *Reading Diagnostic Record* (Revised). Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1932.

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3. If possible, talk with the student's teachers informally or in a case conference to obtain information on his performance in their subjects, his relationship with classmates, and any special abilities or difficulties which they have noted. This may be done before or after the interview.

¹¹ Ruth Strang and Others, *Reading Diagnostic Record* (Revised). Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1952.

B. In the first interview:

1. Start where the student is, accept him as a person who has many good qualities and, like everyone else, has certain difficulties. Be sensitive to the way he is thinking and feeling. The approach in every case will be different. If the student is emotionally disturbed by his reading difficulty, the teacher-counselor may gain rapport by giving a test of visual efficiency such as the Betts' test. This screening test may indicate need for referral to an oculist for a more thorough examination. Another approach is to provide a number of books and articles on different levels of reading difficulty and ask the student to browse through them and select the ones he would like to read. When he reads a paragraph or two from the books he has selected, the teacher-counselor can obtain an approximate idea of his level of reading ability.

If the student is ready to talk freely about his reading and study, he will clarify the situation for himself and give some clues to the most profitable phase of the problem to explore. He may mention lack of interest or purpose, inability to budget time, slow reading, inability to concentrate, or other conditions that he feels are interfering with his reading and study efficiency. If he has difficulty in budgeting his time, he may find it helpful to keep a running account of his activities for several days and then discuss his daily schedule with the counselor.

C. Other sources of information:

Out of the first interview usually grows a need for more understanding of the student's reading and study methods. This may be obtained in various ways:

1. An oral reading test is most revealing. For elementary school children and retarded high school pupils the Gray Oral Reading Test¹² is excellent. With older students the four paragraphs in the Reading Diagnostic Record may be used. Paragraphs from the student's texts or reference books can be used in the same way. The student is asked to read each paragraph aloud and then to tell what the author says or to answer appropriate questions. From the oral reading test the teacher-counselor may learn much about:

¹² Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois

- a. The level of difficulty on which he can read fluently.
- b. The mechanical errors he makes: reversal of letters or syllables, repetitions, omissions, mispronunciations, substitutions of letters or words.
- c. The way in which he attacks unfamiliar words.
- d. The way his mind works in grasping ideas while reading: some students will fail to get the main idea and remember only trivial details; others will give a complete, logical pattern of thought in their own words.¹³
- e. His attitude toward reading. His facial expression and other expressive movements as well as his incidental comments such as "I hate to read," "That was very bad, wasn't it?" give important clues as to the student's attitude toward himself and toward reading.

2. Silent reading tests, either standardized tests or informal tests based on passages from parts of the text or reference books which the student has not yet read, may be used. Much diagnostic information may be extracted from these tests:

- a. The total score, with its grade or percentile equivalent, shows his reading ability in reference to his age or grade group.
- b. The scores on the subtests show differences in reading skills. (It must be remembered, however, that a short subtest has low reliability.)
- c. The errors made on the silent reading test indicate difficulties to be corrected. For example, one student may repeatedly make errors in words that resemble other words in form—as "conflagration" confused with "congregation." Or, on the paragraph reading tests, he may miss most of the questions involving generalizations or inference.
- d. Introspective reports made soon after taking the test give insight into the reading process itself.

3. An analysis may be made of the student's methods of studying an assignment. The counselor may profitably spend a period in sitting with the student while he studies an assign-

¹³ For examples of the marked individual differences in response after reading three test passages, see Ruth Strang, *Exploration in Reading Patterns*, pp. 6-72. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1932.

ment in his usual way. The counselor will note whether the student, before he begins to read, thinks about the purpose for which he is reading and the relation of the passage to his previous knowledge, and raises questions he expects to have answered by the assignment. The counselor will also note whether the student skims over the entire passage to get a sense of the author's mood and intent and the general structure, and how he reads each paragraph, takes notes, gets significant ideas, and relates them to one another. This kind of period is valuable, for in it the teacher-counselor can reinforce good methods and help the student work out better ones.

4. Use of study habit inventories¹⁴ serves to call the student's attention to generally effective study methods. The student rates himself and tries to improve the study habits in which he is weak.

D. Diagnosis based on study of the individual:

From all the recorded data and from the further understanding gained from observation and interviews, the teacher-counselor sees reading and study more clearly as part of the student's total development—as one expression of his individuality. How he reads, how much he reads, what he reads, and what he gets out of his reading depend not only on his ability and past achievement but also upon the availability of reading material, the attitude of his family and peers toward reading, his social adjustment at home and in school, his emotional relation with his parents, and other factors.

E. Remedial work:

One of the most important outcomes of remedial work is a change in the student's attitude toward himself. Poor readers often acquire a reputation for failure and begin to think of themselves as "failures." Often the family intensify this feeling. This hopelessness may be prevented or corrected in a number of indirect ways. For example, a child who had trouble in reading was helped to develop his ability in art. Soon the class looked to him for leadership in art work. As recognition of his ability in this field increased, his inhibi-

¹⁴ A widely used inventory is one by C. Gilbert Wrenn, *Study Habit Inventory* (Revised Edition). Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1931.

tions about reading decreased. His reasoning seemed to be, "Anyone who is as good as I am in art shouldn't be afraid of a book." In the interview the teacher-counselor has the opportunity to help the individual achieve a more hopeful idea of himself and to realize that he is not a failure as a person merely because he does not succeed in certain school subjects.

The best way to help an individual build self-esteem is not merely to point out his abilities but to put him in situations in which he will discover for himself that he can succeed. This can be done by providing work suited to his capacity and giving him as much individual help as he needs. For example, a teacher privately asked an overage girl in the eighth grade to find the answers to a question in history, and gave her a very simple, interesting book on the subject. Her parents cooperated by asking her to explain the subject to them. The next day the teacher casually called on the girl to answer the question, which she did unusually well. After repeated experiences of this kind her classmates, who were beginning to label the girl as "dumb," changed their attitude toward her and thus helped to change her attitude toward herself. In an earlier interview the girl had said bitterly, "You don't know how it feels to have all the kids think you're dumb."

In working with a student who has the idea that he cannot learn to read, it is very important for the teacher-counselor, at the very beginning, to select interesting reading material slightly below his present level of difficulty and to build up a background of experience for reading it. This preparation for reading may also include the study of the difficult words. Then the student will see for himself that he can read a passage with ease and fluency.

Helping the student to correct the errors detected in the diagnosis is also a necessary part of the process of building up self-esteem and self-confidence. For example, if a child has the habit of reversing letters in certain words—*saw* for *was*, for example—he can be given drills that will require him really to look at and distinguish between the two forms, as, for example, sentences like this:

set
The boy was the dog.
saw

If he has difficulty in getting the main idea of paragraphs, he may be given practice in paragraph reading. One series may consist of paragraphs constructed with the topic sentence clearly stated and followed by illustrations and supporting details. Another series may have the main idea as a summary sentence at the end of the paragraph. Still another series may contain two contrasting ideas with the "signal" words, *but*, *however*, *on the other hand*, somewhere in the middle. Still other paragraphs may require the reader to discover the main idea, which is not specifically stated anywhere in the paragraph. Finally a mixed series may be presented so that the student may apply his knowledge of varied paragraph structure. Comprehension may be tested first by means of multiple-choice responses representing the best statement of the main idea, a good but somewhat inadequate statement, a correct but inadequate statement, a definitely inadequate statement, and an erroneous statement. For example, this paragraph may be tested as follows:

Fear, like anger, stops the flow of the digestive juices. In India a test was once used to tell whether or not a prisoner was guilty of a crime. The man was given a handful of dry rice to put in his mouth. He was told to keep the rice in his mouth a few minutes. If the prisoner had committed a crime and was very much frightened, his saliva would stop flowing and the rice would remain dry. If he was not guilty and had no fear of being punished, his saliva would flow as usual and the rice would be wet.¹⁸

The best statement of the main idea of this paragraph is

- a test of guilt in India.
- fear stops the flow of the digestive juices.
- if a person is afraid, his saliva will not flow.
- the effect of fear.
- if a person is guilty, the rice will be wet.

After doing a few exercises of this kind and discussing why one response is better than the others, the student may be asked to state the main idea in his own words. Then skill in

¹⁸ Adapted from W. W. Charters, Dean F. Smiley, and Ruth M. Strang, *Health Problems*, pp. 22-23. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1936.

paragraph reading may be applied to longer passages, and the student may be expected to perceive the relation between the main ideas as he reads.

Similarly, other difficulties discovered in the diagnosis may be corrected through practice, as the student recognizes the need for it. Scores may be kept from day to day so that the student will have objective evidence of his progress. It is true that "practice makes perfect"—if it is practice accompanied by instruction and a knowledge of results. It is also true that "nothing succeeds like success." Therefore the teacher-counselor should try to maintain an optimistic atmosphere throughout the study and reading interviews.

CHOICE OF VOCATION

For many high school and college students day-by-day effort is generated by the thought of vocational plans. Those who have not developed an appreciation of the relationship between school work and their clearly defined goals are not likely to put forth optimum effort. To stimulate such an appreciation is a valuable kind of counseling service.

Vocational guidance should begin early. In the first grade of elementary school, children begin to learn about the milkman, the postman, and other workers in their immediate environment. Thus they begin to form attitudes toward different kinds of work. Their view of the world enlarges as they study other occupations through assembly programs, social studies classes, and visits to industries in their neighborhood. They gain basic information about their own abilities and interests by engaging in arts, crafts, shopwork, sports, history, mathematics, science, and English.

For those boys and girls who leave school to go to work, a special guidance and placement service should be provided, as in England. When a child is contemplating leaving school, his cumulative record should be examined, he should be helped to explore vocational fields within the range of his ability, and he should have access to a placement service that will help him get a job or prepare for a job. The school can be expected to prepare its students for vocational life by means of general

education in reading, writing, arithmetic, science, and citizenship; by equipping them with the technical skills needed in a given family of occupations; by acquainting them with working conditions and relations; and by building an attitude of willingness to change their vocational goal if employment conditions change.

Part-time work experience may contribute a great deal to the student's development and guidance. Its values depend upon the way the program is conducted. Students, parents, teachers, and employers should understand the work experience program as a part of the student's education. Each student should be helped to get the kinds of work experiences that further his education and fit into his twenty-four-hour schedule. In planning his part-time work, he should consider his academic achievement, health, social development, and home conditions. After he has been placed, the employer should cooperate with the school in supervising his work. If these conditions prevail, part-time work experience will have the following values: a better basis for vocational choice, an understanding of different kinds of people and of employer-employee relations, and an appreciation of the value of school. In many cases, it will increase independence, self-reliance, and self-esteem, and provide necessary financial aid. If the work experience is poorly selected and supervised, and is not geared into the school program, it is liable to be detrimental to the student's health, scholarship, and social development.

Every school and part-time work experience may help the individual to discover what he can do and what he cannot do successfully and happily. If he has had good educational guidance, he will have studied in the fields in which he can learn best and will be ready to prepare for whatever vocations open up in these fields.

The more a teacher-counselor knows about his counselees, the better vocational guidance he can give. For this purpose he should seek as much information as he can get about the student's ability to learn; his interests and relative satisfaction in working with ideas, with things, and with people; and his resources for preparing for the kinds of work in which he is interested.

Equally important is knowledge of the personal qualifications for different positions, the exact nature of the work, the pay and opportunity for advancement, the preparation needed, trends in job opportunities, and the social values in the work. Some of this knowledge may be acquired through books such as *The Occupational Outlook Handbook—Employment Information on Major Occupations for Use in Guidance*, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 998, Washington, D.C., 1951. A file of folders should include the most recent pamphlets on each occupation, such as those published by the Science Research Associates, Chicago, and other pamphlets given in the bibliography compiled by Gertrude Forrester and published by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York. (For examples of books and pamphlets, see Appendix B.)

Still more intimate understanding of different jobs is obtained by talking with workers, visiting business establishments and industries, and getting firsthand work experience in one or more lines. Collecting information about vocations and presenting it in readable form is the task of the placement officer and vocational guidance expert.

There are a number of ways of helping a pupil who has made inappropriate vocational plans. It is sometimes possible for him to satisfy his major interest through an avocation, while supporting himself by means of another type of work. This plan was followed by a boy who wanted to become an orchestra leader. He was forced to obtain factory work but managed to improve his proficiency in music by playing the drums in an orchestra on certain evenings.

Another type of adjustment is that in which a basic desire is satisfied through an occupation other than the one first chosen. This adjustment was made by a girl who wanted to model, chiefly because she had always desired beautiful clothes. In appearance, however, she was quite unsuited to the vocation she had selected. Eventually she obtained an excellent secretarial position which enabled her to purchase attractive clothes.

In other instances it is possible to help an individual to change his objectives by having him try out some of the steps in the process in which he is interested. For example, in-

ability to pass certain typing tests may convince a student of his inaptitude for clerical work. A few months in a camp may reveal a strong dislike for non-urban work. An individual who has his heart set on an unsuitable vocation will usually change his impractical plans after an unsatisfactory tryout experience.

Many interviews begin on the vocational counseling plane and move gradually and naturally into consideration of other aspects of the individual's life.

This was true of Miss Trent, who ostensibly came to the college counselor to obtain information about kinds of secretarial work. In order better to understand the factors influencing her vocational choice and her proficiency and satisfaction in different kinds of work, the counselor used two tests of mental ability (the Otis Quick-Scoring Test of Mental Ability and the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Test), a test of clerical ability (the Minnesota Test of Clerical Ability), a test of interests (Kuder Preference Record), an autobiography, and interviews. Thus the counselor obtained a better understanding of her scholastic aptitude and special clerical ability, her inconsistent pattern of vocational and avocational interests over a period of years, her financial status, her feelings of inadequacy and emotional insecurity.

In the course of the initial interviews and testing periods it appeared that Miss Trent was a young woman who withdrew from intimate association with people and was afraid to be spontaneous and outgoing for fear of being rejected or hurt by criticism. As she talked about the jobs she had held, this tendency showed up in her lack of strong, persistent vocational interests and in her need for approval, which was lacking in her present work. On the surface, at least, she relied on intellectual rather than emotional satisfactions.

Throughout the counseling relationship, this young woman constantly sought to hide the sensitive spots in her life under the protection of vocational guidance. She probably obtained some help in progressing in her field of work and a little insight into her personality trends. Her deeper need was for expert psychotherapy.

The teacher-counselor makes his greatest contribution by understanding the individual's ability to prepare for certain fields of work. He needs to be supplied with usable, current information on requirements for different vocations, openings, and trends. For the last stage in the process—placement—the teacher-counselor must depend upon a placement office in the school or community. Vocational guidance is not

carried to its conclusion until the individual enters and progresses in a carefully selected job.

Superficial or unskillful placement interviews, by placing a person in inappropriate jobs, may intensify his sense of vocational failure. They also waste interviewers' time. A large number of re-placement interviews may add up to as much time as adequate vocational guidance in the beginning. The employer also suffers. Rapid turnover of poorly placed workers is an expensive proposition for him. Understanding this, the teacher-counselor tries to prepare his students as adequately as possible for placement.

After the individual is placed, he should be followed up, for two reasons. One is that he may be helped in making a good adjustment to his new job; the other is that the placement officer may continuously learn more about the requirements of different jobs and whether his placement procedures have been effective.

The school counselor should refer disabled veterans to the Veterans' Rehabilitation Services. The Civil Service Commission's "Operations Manual for the Placement of the Physically Handicapped" has proved helpful in the placement of disabled veterans. In placing a handicapped worker, the counselor should consider his ability to do the work safely and efficiently. He should be thought of as an "efficient worker," not as a "problem" requiring special consideration. If handicapped veterans are placed in jobs for which they are ill fitted, they will become increasingly inefficient and discouraged. When production begins to slow down, they will be among the workers who are discharged. Therefore it is necessary to study the physical requirements of each job, such as visual efficiency, facility in speech, manipulative skills, and limitations imposed by illness, in relation to other conditions, such as lighting, noise, ventilation, and social satisfactions. With adequate knowledge of the individual's assets and limitations and of the requirements and conditions of work, the placement officer can help each applicant to evaluate his fitness for the job. Frequently a handicap can be turned into an asset, as, for example, deafness in the case of a person working in the midst of noisy machinery.

Expert guidance with focus on choosing, preparing for, and entering a suitable vocation requires understanding of the individual, information about fields of work and available jobs, and skill in counseling.

Good vocational adjustment should result if the process outlined is carried out skillfully. However, the best efforts of the counselor may be blocked by economic and political conditions. To get results it is necessary to break down prejudices, to build right attitudes toward all socially useful work, and to effect social and economic changes that will open new and numerous avenues of employment.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

In their counseling role, teachers cover a wide range of contacts, from short, casual conversations to a series of hour interviews. Many of these contacts grow out of group guidance. By showing consideration, recognition of good qualities, and interest, the teacher-counselor gradually builds a good relationship out of which a readiness for counseling arises. Instead of having to gain initial rapport in an interview, as the counselor isolated in a personnel office does, the teacher-counselor continues the good relationship he has established in classroom, core-curriculum class, homeroom, laboratory, shop, or playground. Thus, group work and counseling are fused into one effective process.

Although no prescription can be given for dealing with different kinds of problems, some background for understanding common difficulties can be presented. This has been done briefly in this chapter. While using generally recommended counseling procedures, the teacher-counselor should also be able to draw on special knowledge about emotional and social development, physical conditions, needs of children with diverse mental capacity, and educational and vocational guidance. Effective counseling grows out of knowledge, not out of ignorance. Competent counseling requires not only understanding of the psychological roots of behavior, but also skill in the personnel technics to be described in the next part of this book.

Questions and References for Part Two

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Describe the problems or need for guidance that you remember having had when you were in high school and college. How might a teacher, faculty adviser, or teacher-counselor have helped you?
2. Discuss cases in which the "golden mean" of certain types of behavior is desirable, while extremes constitute problems. For example, behavior toward the opposite sex becomes a problem when a girl is either "boy-crazy" or exclusively devoted to members of her own sex.
3. Problems are often thought of as behavior that is annoying to teachers or parents. Give examples that are not of this type: for example, the gifted pupil who is getting B's or A's in his subjects but is not working up to his capacity.
4. How may early evidence of maladjustment be detected before it becomes serious? How would you know when the student should be referred to someone more expert?
5. If a teacher-counselor has two periods a day free for guidance, what is the best use he could make of this time?
6. Tell of cases in which early childhood experiences seem to be influencing adolescent behavior.
7. What can the school do to help neutralize detrimental home influences for children and adolescents? What could you do to help a boy or girl whose home life offers no affection, no supervision, no incentive to make the most of himself?

8. Describe how you would help students whose achievement is far below their ability. What can you do to help those who dislike school but are compelled by law to attend?
9. How can you help a student gain an understanding of his potentialities and his relationship with his family and to society?
10. Visit a homeroom, core-curriculum group, class, or club. Keep a verbatim record of what goes on—what the teacher says and does, what the students say and do. Analyze the interaction in the group, chart the direction of the discussion, study its content with reference to member and leader roles. What were the individuals learning? In what ways may the experiences they are having be making changes in their ways of thinking, feeling, and acting?
11. As a teacher or teacher-counselor, what help would you like to have in improving your counseling and group work?

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Part Three

TECHNIQUES IN PERSONNEL WORK

There was a boy that all agreed
Had shut within him the rare seed
Of learning. We could understand,
But none of us could lift a hand.
The man Flammonde appraised the youth,
And told a few of us the truth;
And thereby, for a little gold,
A flowered future was unrolled.

EDWIN ARLINGTON ROBINSON

Introduction

Technic has been defined by Dewey as "intelligent means and methods for securing results,"¹ The results to which student personnel work so largely contributes—the appraisal and development of the best potentialities of every individual—are facilitated by a number of technics. Years of teaching experience alone do not make a person competent in understanding individuals or in using the group as a means of personality development. If, however, he begins to use personnel technics intelligently and thoughtfully, he will grow personally and professionally along with his students.

The technics most useful to teachers for this purpose are those of observing and rating, obtaining a daily schedule or diary record, securing autobiographical material, testing, and interviewing. Although projective technics such as the Rorschach test require special training and clinical experience, teachers should be acquainted with the more informal projective methods of studying personality. The facts and impressions gained from the use of these technics may be permanently recorded on cumulative record cards or in folders, or unified in the form of case studies.

In the following chapters these technics of work with individuals will be simply and practically presented. The nature of the technic will be defined; situations in which it can be appropriately used will be suggested; approved procedures

¹ John Dewey, *Individualism—Old and New*, p. 29. Minton, Balch and Company, New York, 1930.

will be described; and the values and the limitations of the technic will be pointed out.

These technics of studying the individual supplement but do not supplant essential personal qualities in the personnel worker. No test, rating scale, or other instrument is a substitute for intuition, wisdom, and warm human sympathy. Technics must be used wisely and with insight on the part of the person who uses them, and against a background of psychology, sociology, and experience. Their results should be interpreted in the light of all the other relevant information available.

Technics may reduce guesswork and improve the quality of every teacher's contacts with students. Moreover, technics may influence the student's behavior. The fact that a teacher is interested enough in him to observe him, to talk with him, or to test him sometimes gives an individual a feeling of importance. In the process, the individual himself should gain insight. He may be encouraged by the objective evidence of his assets; he may recognize his limitations more clearly and accept them; he may obtain a basis for planning ahead. A satisfying relationship with the person using the technics has therapeutic value in itself. It determines to a large extent how much the student will profit from counseling.² Personnel work is "person-centered."

There is no magic in technics. They do not tell a young person what vocation to enter; they do not insure good judgment in dealing with a bewildered child; they do not compensate for the teacher's lack of time and energy for working with individuals. But, wisely used, they help the teacher to observe students more intelligently, to record his observations in a more permanent, useful, and meaningful form, and to check and supplement his impressions of the abilities and interests of individual students and of the group as a whole.

² Robert B. Kamm and C. Gilbert Wrenn, "Client Acceptance of Self-Information in Counseling," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 10:32-42, Spring, 1950.

8

Observation and Rating

Observation is a basic technic. By observing students in classes and in more informal groups, teachers learn about their relationships with others, their interests, their responses to failure and difficulty. By observing individuals in interviews and in testing situations, the counselor gets clues to feelings that are never expressed in words. Observation may take these forms:

1. Unrecorded observation. Things the teacher notices day by day are used in helping individual students adjust better to the immediate situation.
2. Anecdotal records: written snapshots of typical or exceptional behavior. An anecdotal record has been defined as "a report of a significant episode in the life of a student."
3. Behavior diary record or "anecdotal behavior journal." These observations are made systematically over a period of time and recorded in chronological sequence.
4. Records of a student's behavior in a particular class, club, or dormitory group in relation to other members of the group. These records show the interaction in the group and the roles individual members are playing.
5. Periodic summaries of trends in development. These are based on accumulated observations and impressions and checked by all the other personnel data accumulated.
6. Rating and rating scales. These may serve either to direct or to summarize observation.

7. A combination of rating scale and description (of behavior) that gives support to the rating is often useful.

Observation of a group may be recorded in the following forms:

1. Verbatim, preferably wire-recorded, records of the total verbal interaction may be used in many ways.
2. Charts may show direction and duration of discussion between members and leader.
3. Charts may summarize discussion under categories—questions and answers, clarifying comments, expressions of feeling such as friendliness and cooperation or hostility and resistance or apathy.
4. Descriptions of individuals' roles and participation may be supplemented by case study data about the individual.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF TEACHERS' OBSERVATION

Anecdotal Records. The teacher's records of either typical or exceptional behavior should be included in the student's developmental record folder. The following are examples of anecdotal records written about high school students:

Immediately following the special assembly at which representatives of three religions spoke, Alice came into class thoroughly enthusiastic and excited. She said, "Wasn't that interesting! I think it's fine that they can talk like that for us and show us how much alike we are." This kind of response is typical of Alice.

When the teacher suggested to Bill that perhaps he could concentrate more easily if there were a few vacant seats between him and Harry, Bill replied, "But I'd only have to make that much more noise to speak to him." Typical of Bill.

Clarence, a monitor, during assembly attempted to squelch some hecklers. In the darkness someone slipped up a seat so that Clarence sat on the floor when he attempted to investigate the situation. Much joy in the vicinity. This is typical of the way other students feel about Clarence.

The following excerpt from a behavior diary record shows how several separate observations may be combined:

Jane was art editor of the school paper, but, after serving a month, she was dropped from the staff for the following reason:

The stencil containing the art work was due on Wednesday afternoon. Accidentally, Jane tore the stencil after she had completed her drawing on it. Instead of making a new one immediately, she turned to something else and did not hand in the stencil until Thursday—a day too late. The failure to fulfill this obligation, which she had accepted, brought about her dismissal by the editor. Instead of becoming indignant or depressed, Jane seemed to accept the justice of the editor's verdict. She said, "I knew I ought to make a new stencil right away, but I just put it off." This objective attitude toward herself is typical of Jane.

Jane's work on the Italo-Ethiopian situation was well handled. She participated adequately in discussions on city, state, and national government and in discussion of terms and questions. In the study of corruption and machine politics, Jane read *Boss Tweed* by Denis Lynch. When first called upon to report she was not ready. When she reported later her work was not distinguished. She depended too much upon notes.¹

That the behavior of the same student often changes markedly in different situations is shown in two observations:

Before class was called to order Daniel exhibited considerable boisterousness—talked with his friends loudly, carelessly knocked over a chair, and made himself generally conspicuous. Miss Vaughn called the class together and began talking to them without first securing their complete cooperation. Her comments were concerned with committees that were working out plans for an exhibit and a party. Although Daniel lowered his voice and sat down, he still continued talking with his companions, preventing those at the table from hearing the teacher. Miss Vaughn twice asked for cooperation in a general fashion, and then particularly asked for Daniel's cooperation. In response, he made some wisecrack under his breath to others at the table, evoking a low laugh, and opened a library book.

During the second half of the double period another teacher took over the class to discuss some poems written by the group. Daniel's whole attitude changed—even the expression on his face. He followed the discussion carefully, made one or two modest contributions, and made an obvious effort to obtain personal attention from the teacher.

Some of the most valuable anecdotal records are reports of diverse responses evoked by different teachers.

Records of this kind help teachers to understand students. They describe the situation concretely, tell what the indi-

¹ Class of 1938, University High School, The Ohio State University. *Were We Guinea Pigs?*, p. 276. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1938.

vidual under observation did and how others responded to him. They suggest causes of the behavior and ways in which the individual may be helped to improve.

Behavior Diary Record, Including Observation in Groups. If the teacher writes anecdotal records over a period of time, he can learn much about trends in a student's behavior during the school year. The following is a record of a senior high school boy with an estimated IQ of 93 on the Otis Self-Administering Test. His father was a skilled laborer. The records were made in an English class which, at the beginning of the year, he liked least of all his classes.

October 17. When Bert was called on for a magazine sales talk, he said he didn't bring a magazine. He showed no embarrassment or apparent regret.

October 18. The class said Bert was the best salesman in the group. Although he had a copy of *Life* with him, he did not take part in the class project in which each member was to advertise a magazine. He said his eyes hurt him. When he did get up, he talked haltingly about the magazine and hastily sat down. He says he doesn't like to talk before people.

November 3. Bert was chosen chairman of a group to select the best letter to send to a patron of the school. The group worked together extremely well and seemed to be interested in writing the best possible letter. Bert wrote the letter with the help of the others in the group and was very careful in his writing.

November 13. Bert came in at the conference period to ask about his mark. He thought he should have the higher mark. The teacher talked to him about it, emphasizing improvement.

December 11. Bert volunteered to tell about a movie he had seen. He gave details of how aircraft crews are trained.

January 29. When the class was asked how the study of vocations in an English class could be justified, Bert said that in this study they would be improving their reading, listening, and other skills.

February 7. Bert remembered many details that were not mentioned by other members of the class when they discussed the movie about choosing a vocation.

February 14. Bert seemed interested in finding magazine articles about the Merchant Marines but gave up after looking in one volume of the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*. When a boy who was also interested in the same subject could not find anything in the guide they consulted, Bert said, "Aw, let's join the Navy instead."

February 28. Bert gave as an example of how movies influence

people the way everyone went around saying "Hokem Pokem" after seeing Abbott and Costello in *Lost in a Harem*.

March 5. Bert had listened to a radio forum on Sunday night. He had followed the discussion and reviewed the program well.

April 3. Bert was nominated as chairman of his class and was elected unanimously. Several of the pupils spoke for Bert, one saying, "He needs the experience and can do the job if we elect him." Later in the day he asked the teacher to recommend a book that would help him learn to preside over the class as chairman. This was the first evidence the teacher had noted of Bert's doing anything on his own initiative.

April 16. Bert presided over the class well and helped in leading the discussion. He called on pupils when there was a lull in the discussion. First he called the class to order, had the minutes read, asked for announcements and any business, and then announced the purpose of the day's discussion—to talk about books, movies, or radio programs.

May 3. Bert came in during the conference period to ask the teacher if she thought he was improving. She asked him what he thought. He said he believed he was and was certainly enjoying the class.

May 16. At the Parent-Teachers Association meeting Bert's mother went up to the teacher to say how glad she was that Bert had had the course in general English; he had begun "to take interest" in his English for the first time this year.

May 27. After the graduation exercises, Bert introduced the teacher to his father and relatives, who thanked her for what she had done for Bert. Bert stood by, beaming.

These anecdotal records give one a sense of Bert's growth in initiative, ability to express himself before a class, and interest in reading, listening, and speaking. The positive, supporting attitude of the class toward him and their acceptance of him as leader were important factors in helping him to make the most of his senior year in high school.

Observing Individuals in a Group. When teachers are required to give a report on the personality and conduct of each student at the end of the term, it is necessary for them to devote some time to observation of one student during each class. The following record describes one girl in relation to her group:

Tillie, as a rule, was the noisiest girl in the class. This afternoon was no exception. She entered the classroom with two friends and was talking so loudly that everyone else could hear her. She walked

over to her desk and put her books down. Then, because the bell had not yet rung, she continued her conversation. Others gathered around to listen. The conversation was a typical one. They were discussing a gossip column in a small paper which they were going to put out. Tillie did most of the talking, which was mainly about hoys. She seemed to know the most gossip, and, consequently, they decided to make her editor-in-chief.

She was wearing a large button which had on it a picture of Frank Sinatra and the words, "Frank Sinatra is my ideal."

When the bell rang for class, she kept on talking until reminded to stop. While the dictation was being given, she giggled, chewed a pencil, and asked several questions. During the time allotted for transcribing the letter, she was constantly moving around and talking, even if all she wanted was an eraser. When the bell rang for the end of the period, she groaned because she hadn't finished, and started to work in a wild burst of speed. She ended the letter in a great hurry, and dashed out to her next class.

More might have been included here on the responses of other students to Tillie's behavior. Often it is possible to learn more about a particular student by observing how others act toward him than by observing him directly.

Periodic Summary of Behavior. The following records are samples of one teacher's summary of observations of each pupil in her sixth grade class. There were only eighteen in this group, ranging in age from 10 years 11 months to 13 years 9 months, and in mental ability from 80 to 102 IQ as measured by several group intelligence tests. They came from an industrial section of a suburban town. The summary of observations on each child was included in the child's permanent developmental record folder.

Charles' achievement in English is good. His writing has a delightful, unique style. He is imaginative and sensitive to his environment and uses significant personal experiences in which he recognizes his true thoughts and feelings as subject matter for themes. In all his writing, his sense of humor is evident. He is able to express his ideas with facility and originality. What he writes elicits and holds the reader's interest. In reading what others have written his comprehension and interpretation of subtle meanings are very high, though his rate for light reading is slow. His literary tastes and standards for judging literary material are well developed.

Richard has a hesitancy in his speech. I would not call it stuttering but he has a tendency to repeat what he is saying. He does

not seem to be sure of himself. This insecurity seems to show itself in his reading also, for he rereads each paragraph. This makes his reading level drop far below what it should be. His mother is very nervous and at present is very much upset about her other sons who are in service. He is very capable in art work and he has a beautiful voice. He is in the glee club and we encourage him to sing for us whenever we have a chance.

William is a good worker but he tries to do too much. He is on the early morning paper route and delivers papers after school. Both his parents work and his sister has to get the supper. He is generally good natured and when he isn't I can easily trace it to the poor health habits cultivated in his home.

Edward is very restless and cannot think or react as quickly as he would like to. He has a habit of hitting himself on the head when he cannot respond. I questioned him, after he complained about a headache, one day and he told me he was in an accident when he was three years old. It was then I noticed he had a large scar on the back of his head. Examinations by doctors have shown there is no cause for alarm; however, I do not allow him to play too strenuously during our play period. His time out of school is poorly supervised. His mother remarried after Edward's father died. His stepfather is a young sailor twenty-one years of age. His mother works in a defense factory so Edward has the burden of getting his own meals except his lunch, which he eats in the school cafeteria. He is likable and accepts responsibility willingly. He is the school bell monitor.

Stephanie was very shy and quiet when she first came into the group. She was not very capable at manual work. After we were organized we started a Story Hour Club. She surprised me with her ability as a storyteller and also as a poet. Everybody likes her for her common sense and entertaining ways.

James is our only colored boy. He is well liked, courteous to the teachers, and willing to cooperate. However, he has many difficulties to overcome—a very poor home, no father (he says he will have one after the war), and his younger brother who is a serious problem in the third grade. He is very untidy about his person and seems to have little incentive to be otherwise.

Clyde came to me recently from Ohio. He does a very inferior grade of work. He is not particularly well liked by the boys. I have tried to overcome some of their dislike by allowing him to tell about his life in the part of the country he came from and encouraging them to have him join their games.

These summaries are helpful in understanding children insofar as they are based on concrete descriptions of the in-

dividual child's behavior, important to him in his task of growing up. They lead to deeper interpretation of his behavior, to the forming and testing of hypotheses about it.

All teachers cannot understand all the students in their classes with the same degree of thoroughness. School conditions, as well as the interest and ability of the teacher, determine how well he can observe individual students and how much detail he can record and incorporate into the descriptive summaries. Every teacher, however, can learn through the process of observation to note the behavior that seems to be most relevant to the child's development.

FORMS FOR RECORDING OBSERVATIONS

No special form for recording observations is necessary. The behavior as observed may be recorded on any kind of card or piece of paper or may be written in diary form in a loose-leaf notebook with a page or more for each student. However, there are advantages in having a simple form such as the following, which was used in University High School, Oakland, California:

Directions: The observation recorded should be specific and descriptive, rather than general or philosophical. Please choose an incident or episode that you consider to be either typical of this student or one that indicates some variation from his usual behavior or attitude.

Name of Student Class
Period Date

The rest of an 8½" by 11" sheet was blank, except for a place at the bottom where the teacher indicated whether the behavior was typical or exceptional. Sheets of different color are sometimes used to indicate whether the teacher considers the behavior commendable or undesirable from the standpoint of the student's best development. This form has the advantage of reminding the teachers of the importance of making specific, descriptive records and is more convenient to handle in the cumulative record folder than small pieces of paper or cards.

Another form is only half as large as the full-size sheet just

described and is used on both sides. On one side are the following items:

.....
Observee	Age	Grade	Date
.....
Observer	Subject Taught by Observer		School
Objective Description			

On the other side are places to note whether the behavior is typical, its degree of significance, and other information that aids in the interpretation of the description:

Typical behavior ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ ? Significance

E	D	C	B	A
---	---	---	---	---

A being highest

Related background information
Observer's personal opinions and feelings about the observee
Interpretation of the behavior

A desirable feature of this record is its inclusion of the name of the observer; the record frequently tells more about the teacher than it does about the student. This form also has the advantage of making it clear that the actual description should be kept separate from the observer's subjective impression and from the interpretation, which can only be made in the light of other information. It is seldom feasible, however, to write supplementary information on each observation sheet. What is usually done is to make a periodic study of a series of descriptive records as part of the total information collected in the developmental record folder, and then make interpretations and recommendations on the basis of this more comprehensive study. No important decision or recommendation should be made on the basis of a single observation. Although certain single items may have significance for an understanding of the student, they give little or no insight into his development until they become part of successive observations and other data collected over a period of time.

If observations are recorded by all the teachers, the number accumulated becomes unwieldy. The only solution is to discard many of the records after the periodic summary has been made and when the student has progressed beyond his earlier

observed behavior. Records that illustrate vividly an important present trend or describe methods of work with individuals that may help other teachers may be incorporated in the summaries. Reports that describe undesirable behavior should be available only to professionally minded persons who will use them for the good of the student. For others, personality fault lines may be translated into positive recommendations.

OBSERVATION IN VARIOUS SITUATIONS

The teacher uses observation in the classroom, in study hall, on the playground, in the cafeteria or dining halls, in clubs, in dormitories, in testing situations, and in interviews. The larger part of his observation he uses immediately; it is never recorded. Some observed behavior, however, is so significant for the development of the child or adolescent that it should be described in written form and filed in his cumulative record folder.

In the Classroom. In the classroom the teacher may observe the frequency with which the student voluntarily makes contributions to the class discussion, the quality of his questions and comments, and his responses to being criticized, contradicted, or ignored. The teacher notes trends in cooperation, responsibility, initiative, sociability, leadership, and other desirable behavior as well as the initial stages of undesirable trends. A first grade teacher, noticing that Jimmy was beginning to get restless, took him with her around the room as she looked at the work of other children. A sixth grade teacher observed that Mary seemed discouraged or resentful over her failure in the last arithmetic assignment and found time to help her analyze her errors and show her how to learn not to fail that way again. When a high school teacher observed that Katie was avoided by other students and seemed lonely and neglected, he put her on a committee on which she could make a contribution to the class. A college instructor observed that one of her students never smiled, seemed habitually depressed. She stopped him one day as he was leaving class alone and said, "Something wrong?" He replied, "Everything's wrong," and then broke down and told her about his intense

worry over family conditions. Several hour interviews helped him to gain perspective and adjust to a situation he could not remedy. Freed of this conflict, he was able to concentrate again on college work. In ways like these, teachers observe students daily and closely in order to meet their needs more adequately.

In the interview. Here also there is opportunity for the teacher-counselor to observe personality traits otherwise unmeasurable. *The first impression the student makes on the interviewer gives an indication of how he may be affecting other persons. What the individual says—and what he does not say—is important.* Observation of the student's expressive movements and other indications of how he is feeling makes it possible for the interviewer to respond to his feelings and see things from his point of view.

In Testing Situations. The observations made during the administration of individual tests are often as significant as the quantitative results. Behavior such as the following may be noted:

1. **Willingness.** Observe the degree of eagerness and enthusiasm, or of reluctance, with which the student approaches the task.

2. **Effort.** Is the student lackadaisical, or does he put forth his utmost effort in accomplishing the task?

3. **Physical activity.** Does he show marked excitement, restlessness, or nervous activity? Is he calm and poised, or very much repressed in expression of any kind?

4. **Speech.** A great deal may be learned from the individual's speech—whether it is fluent or hesitant, whether the student verbalizes freely or says no more than is necessary in answering questions. His vocabulary and sentence structure give indications of his intelligence. To a counselor with knowledge of general semantics, the meaning students give to words and phrases indicates much about their emotional responses to situations and people.

5. **Auto-criticism.** The extent to which the individual criticizes his own work. Some students are very critical of everything they do and say. They are worried for fear they have not said the right thing, have not given the right answer. On the

other hand, others may make a response that is very poor but still they act as though it were entirely satisfactory to them and to others.

6. Attention. Students vary greatly in the degree to which they can concentrate on a particular task. Some will be distracted by any activity in the room; even without environmental distraction they will have difficulty in keeping their attention on the matter in hand.

7. Understanding of directions. Sometimes a student's lack of understanding may be attributable to generally poor reading ability, or, more specifically, to difficulty in reading directions, a technic in which he has had very little practice in elementary and high school years.

In the case of an adolescent girl referred by her older sister, the examiner reported the following observations, which later proved very significant in understanding the situation:

Eve was enthusiastic about taking the tests and put forth her utmost effort. She seemed quite keyed up during the testing period and her excitement was expressed in movements of her hands and body. Her conversation was fluent and mature and, although she talked more than is usual in the testing situation, it did not seem to be an expression of nervousness. She showed normal attention and insight into the tasks. When a person entered the room, she looked up, but returned immediately to the work. She required no elaboration of the instructions for doing each test. She showed no unusual depression at failure nor any signs of being easily discouraged. In spite of her inability to fit in the pieces on the form-board test, she showed no sign of diminishing effort. Although she was told that she had failed to finish the boards in the allotted time, she asked to be allowed to work until she completed them. She showed very poor perception of form, but kept on purely by the trial-and-error method through the first five boards. While taking the Otis Self-Administering Test, she said she had always had trouble with arithmetic, but that she liked to work on hard problems—the night before she had worked an hour on one problem and finally got it right. "It gives me a lot of satisfaction to get something hard," she said. She repeated this statement when she was working on the difficult formboards.

The value of this kind of observation to the teacher or teacher-counselor to whom the specialist gives the test results is obvious. In this case, the marked disparity between the girl's emotionally mature response to difficulty in the test

situation and her sister's remark that "Eve goes all to pieces when she meets a difficult situation" gave a most important clue. It later developed that it was the older sister, not Eve, who was in need of psychotherapy.

Many of the tests used in vocational guidance give opportunity for significant observation in a specific controlled situation. They give a picture of the individual's level of performance and his method of approach to the kinds of problems presented. For example, a subject's expressions of irritation and his method of work in a finger dexterity or mechanical aptitude test are as important for his vocational guidance as his quickness and skill in doing the tasks.

Observation during the administration of a group test also aids in the interpretation of an individual's score. The examiner and his assistants should be alert to observe failure to understand or to follow directions; evidence of fatigue, illness, or emotional disturbance; attempts to copy answers from other students' papers. For example, during a reading test given to a ninth grade class, an observer wrote the following record:

During the reading test it was apparent that Nancy was a fast reader, for she always finished each part of the test before anyone else in the group of twenty-two. She was evidently determined to get a high score, honestly or not. She usually started the subtests before the signal to begin was given, and, when she had finished a portion before the "Stop" signal, she surreptitiously turned her booklet back to work on a previous part she had not finished. Three times she kept on working after the signal to stop was given. Once the psychologist administering the test noticed this and told her to erase the last number she had written. Nancy nodded, but did not erase.

This observation gave some insight into the girl's personality as well as information essential in interpreting her test score.

WHAT TEACHERS SHOULD OBSERVE IN STUDENTS

It is obviously impossible for a teacher to observe all the behavior of every student. He must select the most significant behavior. To select what is most significant from the standpoint of an individual's development is very difficult; to teach

this art is still more difficult. One reason for the difficulty is that the relationship between the student and the observing teacher is constantly influencing the student's behavior. There are, however, some investigations that suggest the relative importance of different kinds of observed conduct.

Wickman's early study of this question² emphasized the fact that the kind of behavior that teachers tend to observe—fighting, being noisy in class, impertinence, talking out of turn, disobedience, and other behavior disturbing to the teacher—is not so important as the kinds of behavior that teachers tend to ignore or even unwittingly to reward—compulsive striving for perfection, unsocialness, suspiciousness, unhappiness, resentfulness, fearfulness, bullying, and being easily discouraged, suggestible, overcritical of others, sensitive, overbearing, sullen. Later studies, similar to Wickman's, have shown that teachers' attitudes are changing. They more often recognize the attitudes mental hygienists consider most significant. The teacher should recognize these danger signals and, if they persist and become more pronounced, should seek whatever expert help is available to deal with them.

The teacher's main attention, however, should be focused on positive personality trends, such as those on the rating scale prepared by a committee of the Progressive Education Association. This scale is now incorporated in the American Council on Education cumulative personnel record. These traits were selected as most important for teachers to observe:

- Responsibility
- Creativeness
- Influence or leadership
- Adjustability
- Concern for others
- Serious purpose
- Emotional stability

There are several advantages in focusing attention on commendable behavior. First, it helps to establish a good relationship with the students and to direct their attention to

² E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, p. 27. The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, New York, 1929

good qualities that they can develop. Second, it directs the teacher's attention to positive qualities on which he can build. It is psychologically sound to "accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative."

In addition to social and emotional behavior, other aspects of development should also be observed. Physical factors are important: general appearance, coordination, health; evidences of eyestrain, poor hearing, fatigue, malnutrition; poor posture, pimply skin or acne, chronic sinus infection, and other physical impairments. A composite impression of slouching posture, disinterest in active games, and lack of normal exuberance calls for investigation by the nurse or doctor.

Academic abilities and work habits should also be noted: ability to get adequate meaning from the printed page with reasonable speed, word knowledge, number ability, ability to think clearly and logically, special skills and abilities, as in arts and crafts, writing, music, athletics. Symonds³ observed the study habits of high school boys during study and class periods. He selected a boy and followed him from room to room during the day, observing his every word and action. If the boy became conscious of being observed, the investigator temporarily turned his attention elsewhere. Morrison⁴ observed and charted the number of minutes a pupil spent apparently concentrating on his work and the number of minutes spent in various distractions. The following record of a high school boy was made by the writer:

11:00 Looks through desk.
11:02 Looks idly through book.
11:05 Reads slowly.
11:12 Gazes out of the window.
11:15 Reads rapidly.
11:29 Talks with neighbor.
11:33 Reads one page.
11:38 Plays with pocketknife.
11:40 Reads rapidly.
11:45 Leaves room.

³ Percival M. Symonds, "Study Habits of High School Pupils," *Teachers College Record*, 27:713-724. April, 1926.

⁴ Henry C. Morrison, *Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Revised Edition), Chap. IX. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931.

It was found that, in general, observed concentration during the study period was associated with study efficiency.

Nor should first impressions be neglected. The way an individual impresses people on first acquaintance is often highly important for his personal and professional success. An employer's first impression, for example, may determine whether the applicant is hired; or it may influence the employer's interpretation of what the applicant says and does later on.

Another area of observation that is of special significance concerns a student's response to difficulty, failure, or being thwarted. Some students go all to pieces in a difficult situation; they overreact emotionally to failure; they have a low tolerance for frustration. Generalizations, of course, cannot be made until the personnel worker has observed students long enough so he can see how they work out their problems. Then, at strategic points, he can help them learn to meet failure constructively—to learn from it rather than to withdraw from it.

COMPARISON OF METHODS

The teacher's observations may be few or many, scattered or systematic. In general, the larger their number and the more systematic they are, the more accurate is the picture they present of students' abilities, interests, and personality trends. Some teachers observe only the behavior that is forced upon their attention—usually conduct that is annoying to them or disturbing to the class. Other teachers select one or two different students each class period to observe continuously. Still others spend some time each week observing individual students while the class is engaged in reading, drawing, or other activity that does not require the teacher's constant attention.

However, the following procedure, used by research workers, is more complete and reliable: observe the entire situation; select a student for intensive observation; observe him in his regular activities, keeping a running account of his activities in five-minute intervals over a number of days. This technic has been found highly reliable and objective.

Of all the informal methods of making and recording ob-

servations, the behavior diary record gives the most complete picture of the student's development. It should begin with a summary of the information available on the background and previous development of each entering student. It should contain descriptions of the same kind of behavior observed in different situations by different persons. It should cover a range of behavior. From time to time, the data collected should be examined, interpreted, and synthesized, so that an evolving picture of the individual is obtained. Having gained insight into apparent changes in the student's behavior, the counselor should next seek the reasons for these changes. If there are deviations from the usual patterns of behavior, or inconsistencies, they should be noted; they may represent the beginning of an undesirable trend to be checked, or of a favorable trend to be encouraged.

HELPING TEACHERS OBSERVE STUDENTS

The way in which the technic of observation is introduced to teachers makes a difference in its effectiveness. In one school the principal requested that each teacher make six anecdotal records a day and hand them in to the counselor. (It had been estimated that a teacher could write six records a day in about fifteen minutes.) This procedure had a compulsory element that the teachers resented. Like many other teachers, they tended to record mostly negative behavior. Some of these records found their way into the summaries prepared for admission officers, and in two cases were thought to have blocked the pupils' acceptance by the college. Because of these difficulties, the school's policy regarding anecdotal records was changed. Now the teachers, on a voluntary basis, keep their own anecdotal records and use them in making their summaries of pupils. If, however, they think that another teacher or the counselor should have a particular bit of information, they pass it on.

The quality of recorded observation is influenced by a number of factors. Small classes, an informal atmosphere, and time for recordkeeping are conditions that contribute to a high quality of observation. The teacher's interest in students as

persons, his training in scientific observation, and his background in child study and psychology are also important factors. Instruction, practice, and tactful supervision in observing and in recording, interpreting, and using anecdotal records promote continuous improvement. Teachers are much more willing to keep records if they find them useful.

The skillful administrator will provide in a number of ways for continuous improvement in his teachers' observations. First, he will show the teachers that he appreciates the time and energy they have already expended in making reports of their observations. Second, by reading some of the best concrete descriptions of behavior in faculty meeting, he will convince the teachers that they are on the right track, and will help them recognize and write records that are valuable as indications of individual students' development. Third, he, or a specialist in guidance, will show concretely how certain good records can be made still better. And fourth, he will see that the records are used in working with teachers in case conferences or individually on cases in which they are particularly interested.

LIMITATIONS OF TEACHERS' OBSERVATION

The limitations of one's observation should be recognized. At best, recorded observations represent only a very inadequate sampling of the student's total behavior. He may have done many things, good or bad, that did not come under the teacher's direct observation. It is impossible for any observer to report everything that a student says and does and the way he says or does it. The danger of making generalizations on the bases of small samples of behavior is too seldom recognized.

Moreover, reports of observation are, in general, notoriously inaccurate. Psychological research on the nature of evidence shows a wide variation in the reports of observers of the same situation. If much time elapses between the observation and the writing of the report, the observer may have forgotten or distorted the facts; thus the inaccuracy of the record is further increased.

Observation is also selective. The possible bias of the ob-

server must be recognized. He may observe and record only the behavior in which he is interested or which fits his preconceived idea of the student. Or he may be biased, as so many teachers are, in looking for the worst instead of the best in students. If his idea of personality and student development is limited, his observations will be limited. Influenced by his own mind-set, prejudices, or desires, he may even see something that did not actually occur. The well-known "halo effect" likewise influences the teacher to report only certain kinds of behavior for a particular student. If an observer knows his prejudices, he can often avoid being influenced by them. Unconscious bias is the most dangerous.

Even if an observation is accurate and unbiased, it is still difficult to interpret. The same observed behavior may have different meanings to two different students. For example, in one case rudeness may be nothing more than an expression of adolescent social awkwardness; whereas in another it may arise from deep-seated hostility to the world in general and to the teacher in particular. A student may be poor in vocabulary and hesitant in speech, not because he has low intelligence, but because he has had very little opportunity to talk with people or because he is inhibited in face-to-face situations; he may write far more fluently than he speaks. Another individual may conceal severe emotional tension under a calm exterior. Psychological consistency for the individual may not be logical consistency to the observer. It is obvious that observation has little or no meaning until something is known of the background and personality of the individual observed, the situation in which the observation was made, and the person observing. Any observation should be cautiously interpreted, for wrong interpretations may do much harm.

VALUES OF TEACHERS' OBSERVATION

Despite its limitations, the technic of observation has many values. In one respect, the observer is superior to the camera, if he is an intelligent "selector." The teacher who has observed many children in similar situations has a frame of reference in which he can judge the significance of individual behavior.

This advantage is still greater, of course, in the clinical testing situation. Even in the classroom, however, observation is the most useful instrument available at present for studying trends of students' social and emotional development. Many opportunities are offered to study the ways in which a student responds to playmates, classmates, members of his family, and other persons in a variety of real situations.

Even if the student becomes conscious of being observed, this awareness may stimulate him to modify his behavior for the better. If he knows he is being observed by the teacher with respect to responsibility, cooperation, and other characteristics on a rating scale, these items may become immediate and concrete goals for him. Thus observation may contribute directly to the student's personality development.

Another value of observation is that it promotes teacher growth. When the teacher becomes interested in observing individual students, he no longer sees his class as a blurred mass. He sees them as individuals with certain potentialities for growth and for making progress toward certain goals. From the standpoint of teacher education, even brief observations are valuable because they tend to make the teacher child-conscious and group-conscious. They lead him to ask the question, "Why does this individual behave in this way?"

Observation, as described in this chapter, is more closely allied to life situations than are personality tests; it is more specific and exact than the generalizations people are tempted to make without careful and systematic observation. At the present time there is no better way than observation to find out how an individual's personality actually functions in real situations. Records of observations are a valuable supplement to data from other sources and should be more generously included in cumulative records and case studies.

Unless teachers are convinced of the value of recording their observation, they will not take the time to do it. Already swamped with clerical work, they resist filling out any more forms. Moreover, they feel dissatisfied with their records unless they have had training in what to observe, how to observe it accurately, and how to use their observations in the guidance of students.

RATING SCALES

Rating scales are a condensed method of recording observations. They are related to observation in two main ways: they may direct observation, or they may summarize it. Their value in directing observation toward behavior significant to the student's development has already been mentioned. Their value as a summary of observations remains to be considered.

In order that rating scales be of any value at all, they must be based on good observation. The translation of observation into rating scale form is facilitated by following these general rules:

1. Limit the number of characteristics to be rated. It is impossible for a teacher to rate thirty to forty students on many different items.

2. Describe the behavior to be rated as nearly as possible in the form in which the teacher will be likely to observe it. For example, the rating scales developed by Van Alstyne⁴ and her associates are organized around situations in which every teacher has opportunity to observe the kinds of behavior to be rated.

3. Provide space in which the teacher may make explanations or give illustrations supporting his rating.

4. Provide space in which the teacher may write supplementary paragraphs to complete his picture of the individual's behavior. It is difficult indeed for a person using a rating scale to reconstruct the student's personality from a list of separate items. The descriptive sketch, on the other hand, emphasizes dominant factors and relations.

5. Allow a long enough period for observation before the rating is made and make it clear that no rating should be made if the teacher does not have adequate basis for making it. No rating at all is much better than a superficial or inaccurate rating.

⁴ Dorothy Van Alstyne and the Winnetka Public School Faculty, *Winnetka Scale for Rating School Behavior and Attitudes*, Winnetka Educational Press, Winnetka, Illinois, 1935.

Dorothy Van Alstyne and the Francis Parker School Faculty, *Record for Describing Attitudes and Behavior in High School*, 330 Webster Avenue, Chicago, 1939.

6. Give clear directions for using the rating scale and offer instruction and practice in improving observations.

7. Arrange to have the rating scale filled out by different persons who have opportunity to observe the student under different conditions.

The Personality Rating Scale developed many years ago by the Committee on Personality Measurement of the American Council on Education exemplifies many of these good features. Two items from the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules* illustrate another form of rating that is widely used in industry as well as in educational institutions:

8. Is he slovenly or neat in personal appearance?

Unkempt Very slovenly	Rather negligent	Incon- spicuous	Is concerned about dress	Fastidious Foppish
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27. Is he generally depressed or cheerful?

Dejected Melancholic In the dumps	Generally dispirited	Usually in good humor	Cheerful Animated Chirping	Hilarious
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The rater puts a cross or check at the point which seems to him to describe the individual most accurately. Students are impressed by the similarity between the characteristics teachers emphasize and the items included on the scales which many large industries and business firms use to rate their employees.[†]

In using rating scales teachers must resist the temptation (1) to check items on which they have had too little chance to observe, (2) to be overinfluenced by some recent occurrence, (3) to let an unconscious dislike of an individual color their rating of him, (4) to rate generally high the students who are courteous and compliant and to rate generally low those who are crude and difficult to get along with.

In interpreting ratings of other persons, teachers and teacher-counselors should recognize all these possible sources of error. They should also realize that individual raters have different standards and that different situations and personal-

* *Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules*. Copyright 1930 by World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

† Robert H. Falk, *Your High School Record: Does It Count?* South Dakota Press, Pierre, South Dakota, 1943.

9

Daily Schedules and Other Personal Documents

THE DAILY SCHEDULE

The daily schedule provides a framework in which the observations of behavior take on more meaning; it rounds out the picture of the individual's activities over twenty-four hours. In no other way can the teacher so easily obtain a wealth of information about students.

Illustrative Daily Student Schedules. A comparison of single-day schedules from each of three ninth grade high school students living in very different environments shows how much the teacher may learn from this kind of record in a few minutes. The reader will get a vivid impression of the differences in environment, in daily routine, and in interests as he reads each of these schedules:

SCHEDULE OF STUDENT I

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
6:00	Sleeping	90
7:30	Dressing, Washing	20
7:50	Breakfast—four prunes and juice. Chatted	15
8:05	Got books together. Talked	15
8:20	Walked to school with girl	20
8:40	Put books away. Talked to teacher	5
8:45	Class called to order. Announcements	5
8:50	Hygiene—class work ..	40

9:30	English—class work	40
10:10	Social studies—class work	40
10:50	Assembly. A woman talked to us about politics	40
11:30	Class meeting. Discussed our mascot	15
11:45	Chapter meeting. Discussed our charity	15
12:00	Teacher talked to us about running in the halls and school rules	10
12:10	Lunch—one cream cheese and pimento sandwich and one glass of orange juice. Talked	20
12:30	Read	15
12:45	Class called to order	5
12:50	Latin—class work	40
1:30	Mathematics—class work	40
2:10	Got books together, put on hat and coat, and left the school ..	10
2:20	Went home on trolley car ..	10
2:30	Went down to museum with girl	25
2:55	Went through American wing. Looked at I, II, and III period furniture	125
5:00	Left on bus for home ...	50
5:30	Arrived home. Talked to Mother. Phoned	20
5:50	Talked. Got a surprise—a pet cat!	10
6:00	Supper—stewed celery, one baked potato, one piece of whole-wheat bread, one-fourth teaspoon butter, one apple, and a small piece of cake	40
6:40	Practiced	45
7:25	Dawdled. Talked. Phoned	20
7:45	Undressed. Took a bath	45
8:30	Heard of accident. Leaned out window trying to find out. Saw it!	30
9:00	Homework	60
10:00	Got into bed; slept	480
Total		1440

SCHEDULE OF STUDENT II

Time	Activity	Number of Minutes
6:00	Washed and dressed ...	15
6:15	Worked commercial problems ..	15
6:30	Ate breakfast—meat sandwiches and water	30
7:00	Rode to school in car	20
7:20	Combed hair	10
7:30	Studied arithmetic	30
8:00	Visited with boy friend	15
8:15	To commercial class	60
9:15	To chorus	60

10:15	Assembly	30
10:45	In library reading <i>Sights Unseen</i>	60
11:45	To dinner .. .	15
12:00	Worked on health chart	20
12:20	Visited with friends	40
1:00	In session working on civics .. .	60
2:00	In session room reading <i>Sights Unseen</i>	60
3:00	To civics class .. .	60
4:00	Rode home in car	20
4:20	Read newspapers .. .	20
4:40	Fooled around with my brother	20
5:00	Helped mother .. .	30
5:30	Helped father carry milk up and do chores	60
6:30	Helped prepare supper	30
7:00	Ate supper—potatoes, fried meat, milk, etc.	30
7:30	Read <i>Sights Unseen</i>	30
8:00	To bed and sleeping	600
Total		1440

SCHEDULE OF STUDENT III

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
6:00	Sleeping	90
7:30	Breakfast—waffles, coffee, grapefruit	30
8:00	Dressing .. .	15
8:15	Walked to school, slowly	15
8:30	Went to bookkeeping, slowly	30
9:00	Recited. Received "bawling out"	30
9:30	Worked on books. Talked to boy	30
10:00	Reproved by Mr. L—. Recited	30
10:30	Collected money. Studied	30
11:00	Recited in English class. Talked	30
11:30	English discussion	60
12:30	Study hall. Talked to boy .. .	30
1:00	Studied .. .	25
1:25	Walked with boy; argued. Lunch	5
1:30	American history class .. .	65
2:35	Study hall. Bored .. .	65
3:40	Went to candy store with boys and girls. Talked ...	80
5:00	Ate one-half box of chocolates .. .	75
6:15	Dressed for dinner .. .	15
6:30	Dinner .. .	40
7:10	Got ready for date .. .	5
7:15	Played piano. Talked over phone .. .	45
8:00	Date arrived .. .	10
8:10	Went to show .. .	120

10:10 Ate—hot chocolate	20
10:30 Came home. (Date left—good riddance!)	30
11:00 Undressed for bed; slept	420
Total	1440

Information Obtained from Daily Schedules. These schedules yield a remarkable amount of insight into the economic and social conditions in the students' homes and neighborhoods. It is evident that the first schedule was written by a city girl who had well-to-do, intelligent parents concerned with her health and education. She was just about the right weight but thought she was fat; hence the self-imposed dieting—four prunes and juice composed her daily breakfast. The second schedule came from a country girl whose leisure time was largely occupied with home duties and who had few social and cultural advantages. Perhaps the reader has already guessed that the third schedule was written by a girl in a small town who had been selected for study by the principal as one of his "problem cases."

In addition to giving indications of the student's general background, daily schedules kept accurately for a week yield information on the following personal items:

Educational

- School program and extraclass activities
- Time spent in studying each subject
- Time spent in going to and from school

Vocational

- Part-time work
- Home duties
- Hobbies

Religious

- Church and Sunday-school attendance
- Attendance at church clubs

Recreational and social

Ways in which the student spends his leisure time in the morning, afternoon, evening, on holidays, Saturdays, and Sundays

Amount of time spent in various kinds of recreation (out-door: games and sports, hiking, camping; indoor: dancing,

movies, radio, television, reading, listening to or playing music, talking, painting and drawing, handwork and household arts)

Nature of the student's recreation (alone; with others: boys or girls in gangs and in clubs, with one other person, with several, with younger children, with adults, with his own family, with persons outside the family)

Place of recreation—his own home, friends' homes, the street, the playground, club rooms, "joints," in autos

Interests

Revealed insofar as the student is free to choose his own activities (The daily schedule gives a valuable check on interests expressed in an interview or on a check list.)

Health habits

Choice of food in meals (if this detail is requested)

Regularity of meals

Eating habits

Sleep and rest

Outdoor exercise

Attitudes and values

If the student writes freely, he frequently reveals attitudes, as in the third schedule, in which dislike for school is suggested by such items as "Walked to school, slowly" and "Study liall, bored." In contrast, another youngster, whose achievement in relation to her ability was the highest in the class, spontaneously wrote on each of her daily schedules, "Walked to school, briskly."

Relationships with family

Amount and kind of association with father and mother

Amount and kind of association with brothers and sisters

Relation with other relatives or boarders

NAME DAY DATE

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Number of Minutes</i>
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At the bottom of the page there may be supplementary items, helpful in interpreting the schedule:

Did you feel well—or have some illness today?
 Was this day typical? If unusual, in what
 respects? Were you able to make an
 accurate record of your activities? If not,
 what are the errors?

Another form of diary record is divided into fifteen-, thirty-, or sixty-minute blocks in which the student lists his activities. For college students, whose days fall more or less into hourly periods, this form of schedule is satisfactory. It has the advantage of reminding the student that he should account for every period of time during the day. It has the disadvantage of unnecessary bulkiness when activities are of two or three hours' duration and of becoming overcrowded when there is a rapid shifting from one activity to another.

In the summarized form of diary record, space is provided for each of the common types of daily activities. In each space the student writes at the end of the day the estimated amount of time he has spent in each activity. Obviously the inaccuracies in this form of schedule are great, because it is impossible for students to remember at the end of the day the exact number of minutes they have spent in studying, conversing with friends, walking, and the like. It is also difficult for them to agree in their classification of specific items. Moreover, this form omits details of daily living that give the greatest insight into habits and attitudes.

Methods of Obtaining the Daily Schedule. The method of obtaining schedules varies somewhat with the purpose for which they are to be used:

To reveal the special problems of individuals in an entire class and the problems common to the group

To aid in the study of certain groups, such as students failing in academic work, discipline cases, and the "best all-round" students

To help individuals who wish to cooperate with the counselor in the solution of their difficulties

To help every student budget his time so as to get the most value from his high school and college years

In each instance the form of schedule may be modified so as to yield the desired information with the least amount of labor.

A few general directions are applicable to most of the situations:

1. First, gain the interest and cooperation of the students. Use whatever appeal is effective for the particular group. In one high school in which considerable attention had been given to study habits and an interest in "being scientific" had been aroused, the introduction to schedule-keeping took this form:

We should all be as interested in finding out how we spend our time as in knowing how we spend our money. To keep daily schedules would be of value to you as well as to other students. Perhaps you are studying a great deal at home and want to do the work more quickly. Perhaps you need not study as much as you do, and could use your time in other interesting ways. Girls in other high schools and colleges are keeping records of the way they spend their time. How many of you would be interested in doing this?

We are most concerned with having these records scientifically accurate. You know from your chemistry and other subjects that nowadays everything must be scientific. You can make accurate records because you are intelligent and able to understand the method of keeping them; you are interested in doing it; and as a group you can be counted on for cooperation and honesty.

2. Emphasize the importance of (a) keeping the record from time to time during the day rather than waiting until the end of the day and (b) writing in detail everything that occurs. Supervisors of this project in one school mimeographed the following directions and gave them to each student, as well as reading them to the class on the day they began to keep their schedules:

1. Fill in code number, day, and date at the top of each page. On the first line write what you were doing at six A.M.

2. On the next line under 6:00, write the time at which you

began to do something else. Write what this was in the space labeled "Activity."

3. Continue in this way during the day.

4. Be sure to write *exactly* what you did. Do not write just "studied" but "studied English," "studied history," or whatever it was you studied. After writing "breakfast," "lunch," or "dinner," put down what you ate. Instead of just "went to school," write how you went—whether walking, riding in a streetcar or in an automobile. Tell the names of the magazines you read and the plays you go to. No one will criticize you for your choice.

5. Be sure to write down what you do and the time you begin to do it during the day. *Do not wait until the end of the day to write your schedule.*

6. Write down exactly what happened. Unless these records are true and accurate they are of no value.

7. Record minutes for each activity in the right-hand column. This column should total 1,440 minutes.¹

3. If keeping the daily schedules is a school-wide project, obtain the cooperation of all the teachers in allowing their students to take several minutes at the beginning of each period to enter the previous activity on their schedules. This will call the students' attention to the importance of keeping the record from time to time during the day. Certain teachers may cooperate further: the mathematics teacher may include as part of his daily assignment the calculation of the minutes spent in each activity; the English teacher may count a clear, detailed statement of activities as part of the English assignment; the home economics teacher may make her entire homework requirement for the week an accurate record of the kind and amount of food eaten.

4. Read the schedules handed in the first day or two and make specific suggestions on how they may be improved with respect to accuracy and detail.

Unless the interest and cooperation of the students are secured and maintained, the schedules are worthless. If a teacher is unable to arouse a group's desire to make diary records of their daily activities, he had better drop the matter for the time being. If the student is willing to take major responsibility for his own appraisal, he will consider the daily schedule as one way of seeing more clearly how he really spends his time.

¹ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang. "The Daily Schedule as an Aid to Advisers," *Teachers College Record*, 27:37-38, October, 1927.

For guidance purposes, one week's schedule is sufficient. Even one day's record has value in supplementing other sources of information about the individual.

Use of the Daily Schedule. As part of each student's developmental record, the daily schedule adds much to the understanding gained from the rest of the accumulated data. In reading the daily schedules, the teacher sees a procession of unique individuals. For example, he notes that one high school girl attends both church and Sunday school, spends a large portion of her leisure time with her family, and daily feeds the pet lamb. Another girl in the same grade plays golf at the country club on Sunday, is seldom at home, and reads Shaw and other sophisticated authors. The schedules reveal individual problems—problems of sleep, study, meals, use of leisure time, outdoor exercise, social relationships, and the like. Problems concerning the wise use of leisure show up vividly in the daily schedules. For example, one boy of a group of thirty-four eleventh grade boys studied by Rice and Brownlee² had only 2.4 hours of leisure during the school week, while another had 21.2 hours.

The daily schedule is also useful in learning about the group. For example, in one high school, the pupils' records showed that the assignments in history were too heavy. One pupil studied English 150 minutes, French 420 minutes, and history 810 minutes during the week. The schedules of many other pupils showed a similar disproportionate amount of time spent on history. On further investigation, it was found that these pupils were spending more time studying history, not because they liked it better than other subjects, but because the teacher gave specific written assignments each day, which she rigorously marked. When the teacher herself saw the results of the time schedules, she voluntarily modified her assignments to enable the students to distribute their study time more equally.

Similarly, the need for more or fewer recreational activities in the school may be ascertained from the daily schedules.

² George A. Rice and Robert E. Brownlee, "Leisure Activities of the Eleventh Grade Students, University of California," *University High School Journal*, 10:217, December, 1930.

In one school the students were overscheduled; almost every minute of their time was spent in special lessons or planned activities. They had no leisure time to use as they wished. In another community the schedules showed many afternoon and evening hours of completely unsupervised time. These records furnished one basis for planning a student activity program that will adequately supplement the out-of-school recreational opportunities and thus meet the needs of different groups.

The daily schedule is useful not only in the discovery of problems and needs, but also in their solution. It is also an avenue through which rapport may be secured in an interview. It furnishes a starting point for discussion as counselor and student consider desirable modifications in it. For example, a student whose daily program is lacking in social activities can be encouraged to consider his relation to his own age group and whether he should join a social club at school. A student who is engaging in a number of worthwhile non-school affairs may be relieved of some of his extracurricular responsibilities at school. When a student of average ability who is failing in several subjects can see by an examination of his schedule that he is spending less time in study than other more successful pupils of equal ability, he may modify his daily program accordingly.

An effective approach to students who are not budgeting their time wisely is to acquaint them with the amount of time other students spend in sleep, study, recreation, and work. This information can be obtained from summaries of schedules of different groups of students. Both college and high school girls are interested in knowing that five hundred Mount Holyoke College students spent daily, on the average, three hours and twenty minutes in study, one hour and twenty minutes in physical activity, three hours and twenty minutes in social activities, forty minutes in religious activities, eight hours and twenty minutes in sleep, and one hour and a half in eating meals.⁴ High school girls are interested in learning that sixty of the "best all-round" girls in six different high

⁴ A. Comstock, "Time and the College Girl," *School and Society*, 21:526-527, March 14, 1925.

schools spent approximately two and one-half hours daily in study; the same amount of time in social activities; one hour each in physical activity, home duties, cultural activities such as reading and practicing or taking music lessons; nine hours and twenty minutes in sleep; one hour in dressing; and one hour and seventeen minutes in eating.⁴

The following individual cases, in which the daily schedules were used, concretely illustrate their value in dealing with the personal problems of students.⁵

A Girl Who Imagined She Was Overworking. The mother of a very intelligent, attractive girl came to the school to protest about the amount of preparation required for the work in English 12. (English 12 comprises a group of college preparatory students whose excellent work has earned them an invitation to membership in the class.) The mother said that even though her daughter was staying up late to study she nevertheless could not complete the preparation required for English 12.

The daughter, May, said that all the pupils in English 12 felt the work was too heavy; that while they enjoyed the class, they thought too much was demanded of them.

The dean suggested the idea of studying the time schedules of May's companions and comparing them with May's own. May was asked if she knew whether any of the English 12 students had a daily program similar to hers. May named five girls who, she thought, had programs almost identical with her own, and these five were asked if they would be willing to assist in a little study of the daily activities of their group. They gladly agreed to help, and together with May they kept daily time schedules for two weeks.

When the schedules were returned to the office, an examination of them showed that May's was the only schedule in which concerts, shopping tours, driving downtown, afternoon tea, etc., appeared frequently; it also showed very little time, often none at all, spent on English. Since all six girls were of much the same type—attractive, intelligent, popular, eager for a good time, interested in school activities other than academic work, May realized when she saw her own record and compared it with the records of her friends that her complaint of too much English work would scarcely hold. She protested no longer.

Her mother said some months afterward: "Keeping a time schedule was excellent for May. It showed her what I already

⁴ Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, "Activities of High School Girls," *Teachers College Record*, 30:556, March, 1929.

⁵ The author is indebted to Mrs. Mary F. Pilcher for the descriptions of these two cases from the senior high school in which she was dean of girls.

knew, that she was not planning her time well and was not doing much real studying." A year later, when May's brother was having difficulty with his work, the mother asked the principal if the boy could not be taught how to keep a daily time schedule.

A Pupil Carrying a Heavy Program. A tenth grade pupil was carrying at her own request an unusually heavy program of work. The dean of girls, doubtful of the wisdom of so heavy a load of studies and a little anxious about the amount of rest and recreation that this young student might be getting, asked the girl to keep a daily schedule for a week or two. The schedule seemed to show that the girl was neither overworking nor leading an unbalanced existence, at least during those weeks.

Limitations of the Daily Schedule. The most common sources of inaccuracy in the daily schedule are the student's failure to keep the record during the day, with consequent inability to remember all his activities and the amount of time spent on each, and his desire to make a good impression. Variations in activity from day to day and from season to season make generalization from a one- or two-week schedule impossible. The first of these sources of error is lessened when the student feels he is keeping the record in order to understand himself, not to supply information to the teacher or counselor. The second can be almost eliminated by effective directions, by daily supervision, and by cooperation of all teachers. Variation from typical daily activities can be checked by having the student indicate whether the schedule is typical or unusual and in what respect. A study of the reliability of this type of record in a boys' school showed little difference between activities in the early fall and in the winter, with the exception of recreation. In the early fall the boys were out for football; in the winter they were spending much of their time practicing for an operetta.

Like other technics, the daily schedule is never used as a sole source of information.

Values of the Daily Schedule. Viewed as a supplement to, and a framework for, other technics, the values of the daily schedule predominate over its limitations. It widens the scope of the teacher's observation; it raises questions, which may be answered in the interview; it often calls attention to the need for information that can be obtained from standardized tests.

This technic has value to the teacher and teacher-counselor, the parent, and the student. The values to the teacher and counselor may be summarized as follows:

1. By supplying a detailed picture of the student's twenty-four-hour day, the daily schedule increases the teacher's understanding of many aspects of an individual's development—physical, intellectual, social, religious.

2. It often suggests explanations of low achievement, poor health, and lack of sociability.

3. It can be used as a means of gaining rapport and stimulating the student's thinking in an interview.

4. By supplying a framework of familiar routine, the daily schedule makes it easy for the student to suggest and carry out his own suggestions for achieving a better balance in his daily living.

Incidentally, it is equally enlightening for the teacher or the counselor to keep a daily schedule of his own day. This practical kind of job analysis increases professional efficiency.

The values of the student's daily schedule to the parent were suggested in the description of the girl who imagined she was overworking. By examining the daily schedule together, the parent and child can see more clearly what is good and what is poor about his daily program, and what each can do to give it a better balance. It may also suggest to the parents changes that should be made in their way of life.

To the student, the daily schedule is a kind of mirror. It shows him exactly how he is using his time and how he may modify his program advantageously. Thus he gets help on one of his major problems: the budgeting of time. Moreover, a critical examination of one's daily schedule is "an exercise in self-evaluation"—especially in the evaluation of the daily activities that are the building blocks of character.

In observation, a student is viewed through another's eyes; in the daily schedule he makes his own objective record of his activities; in personal documents such as subjective compositions and autobiographies he has an opportunity to view his life as a whole and tell how he feels about it. Each adds an important element to the fuller understanding of the student.

COMPOSITIONS

Students often welcome the opportunity to write compositions about themselves. They can be encouraged to write frankly by presenting the composition as an opportunity to understand themselves better. They need not sign their names, if they prefer not to do so. If the writing of the composition has raised questions in their minds or caused anxiety, they should feel free to come to the counselor about it.

For many years the author has obtained from high school pupils compositions on a variety of personal subjects—"My views on juvenile delinquency," "How I feel when I get my report card," "When I have felt disturbed, at a loss, or 'all at sea.'" Several sample compositions will indicate the kind of understanding that may be obtained from these documents.*

A sixteen-year-old boy of low socio-economic status wrote as follows:

A juvenile delinquency is one that breaks the law. Probably the reason he got into trouble was because he wanted excitement, money or his parent were to strict or not strict enough. He just wanted to show his parent that he was independent and could get along without his parents. Maybe his parents was not strict enough and he did anything he wanted. His friends would not except him because he was poor or could not play ball or other games as well as most of the boys. He was probably lonely and had to have some fun and breaking the law was the only way he got it.

The parents themself our the main support in helping to stop juvenile delinquency. First they should raise there own children the right way. Not spoiling them to much and by giving them enought attention. Even while raising their own children they should think about the little boy with out parents or both parents are working with out giving him any throught. They just tose him aside saying that someday he will be caught and put away. Did they ever stop to think they could help prevent that boy from being a juvenile delinquency. Just by inviting him in and talking to him like his parent should would help give him a little love and understanding.

Three junior high school pupils from different home backgrounds all felt differently about bringing home their report cards:

* Spelling and grammar are uncorrected.

When bringing home a report card my parents never act satisfied, although they most always are. They always say, "There's plenty of room for improvement," even if I get 90. . . .

I have never been punished for bringing home a bad report card as I never have failed a subject, but I am sure that if I ever go below 75 I will get a severe punishment. Another thing that I do not like about bringing home a report card is, my older brother is always telling me how good he was; that makes me feel very dumb.

When I get my report card I look at it first. If the marks are good and all passing, I feel happy and free to go home because my parents won't say anything but, "Nice work and try harder." But if my marks are failing, I don't like to go home right after school and face my mother with it. The first thing she does is take it from me and read the marks and say, "What a report card! You could have done better if you had worked harder. You spend all your time fooling around and don't give enough attention to your work." I feel like crying but I don't, till Dad comes home. My mother shows him the card and he looks at me with a very strange look and says, "A nice report card!" I feel all choked up and I can't say a word. He keeps looking at it and he says, "From now on you are going to stay in and study every night. From now on, no movies, no games. You are going to bring those marks up or I'll know why. You should be ashamed of yourself." He tells me to go in and study. And I don't say a word. I'm just scared all over.

When I take my report home, I usually have a feeling of suppressed excitement, that is if it is an admirable report. As I walk home comparing my report with my friends, I feel very talkative; we discuss our teachers, their faults, and if we received a bad mark, their unfairness.

I like to tease my mother by slowly opening the door, walking sorrowfully into the house, and slowly handing her my card. I usually say, "I'm sorry, Mom, but I tried." Before Mom looks at it she usually says, "Well, next time you'll do better." But when Mom sees my good card and my grinning face, she tries to appear angry, but she never quite succeeds.

When Dad comes home, he glances at my card on the desk. Then he slyly slips a dollar in my hand and says, "Our daughter takes after me, doesn't she, Mom?"

That is how I feel when I take my report home.

In the area of parent-child relationships, an eighteen-year-old girl who was in the twelfth grade wrote:

My problem is my parents. I respect my parents' opinion very much so please don't get the idea that I've shut my eyes and won't listen to reason. My parents dislike this fellow and so far as I can

see it, they don't have a stable reason. . . . My parents can't or won't see my way and I have tried their way, which is giving him up and it don't work. Should I give a fellow up because he isn't good looking, and find someone who is handsome but maybe not with the same character?

A bright sixteen-year-old junior in high school was concerned about young people drinking:

In my crowd the problem was drinking. They thought it was smart to have beer parties or to have weinie roasts where a bottle was included. I think it is wrong for teen-agers to drink. It ruins our health and it is not smart, but what is one to do or say when everyone else in the crowd likes to drink. A person feels different and left out when he isn't like the others in his group. This was my problem and it weighed heavily on my mind for a long time. . . .

This is a problem which confronts most of the teen-agers of today at one time or another, and it is an important one. I really believe that if every person who drinks would analyze his views on the subject and find out why he does and what he gets out of it, there would be fewer cases of teen-age drinking in America today.

A high school boy, eighteen years old, described the difficult decision he had to make in his junior year.

When I was in Junior High I met a nice girl and went with her for a while, and then didn't see her for several years. During the early part of the summer I met her again; we started going steady and now she wants to get engaged. I love her very much. I have lost all interest in school and do hardly any studying whatsoever. You see during the summer I had a job as mechanic in a garage and I was making \$55 per week, five days. I want to quit school and go back to work. But I hate to hurt my mom and pop by quitting school. I have not told them that I love this girl. I know it would hurt them because they do not care much for this girl and both of these things would hurt them. Everything would probably work out all right I know, if we would get married. But my parents would be much depressed until they see that I am getting along fine. I have not made any decision yet, but when I make it I hope I take the right road to happiness and success.

Reading compositions of this kind is the quickest way to get into the inner world of adolescents. All the problems of growing up, all the conflicts with their culture, their need for educational and vocational guidance, and, in many cases,

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Reading compositions of this kind is the quickest way to get into the inner world of adolescents. All the problems of growing up, all the conflicts with their culture, their need for educational and vocational guidance, and, in many cases,

their resourcefulness in meeting their problems are revealed in their frankly written accounts.

AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

The autobiography is a more comprehensive form of personal document. Early in the school term, as soon as the teacher has gained the students' confidence, he may introduce the autobiography as a way of getting acquainted with all his students. He may say to them, "The quickest way for us to get acquainted with one another is for you to tell me about yourself and for me to tell you about myself. You can tell me about your home and your friends, and the things you like." ¹ The autobiography may also be written as the culmination of a unit on self-appraisal.

Excerpts from Autobiographies. A few short excerpts from very complete autobiographies written by gifted high school students will illustrate some of the values of this technic. The first gives a glimpse of a happy outdoor childhood:

I remember, when I was nine years old, we lived in the open country. One of my friends had some horses and we used to race through the old cornfields, shouting like Indians. I remember, too, a creek near by, where we used to wade in the summer and build huge dams of rock and mud. When it flooded, we saw all our hard work crumble in the swift waters, but we would soon start another, hoping it would hold this time. Sometimes we'd take our lunch and, with our dogs at our heels, would go on long hikes. When the sun grew hot we'd find a shady spot, lie down, eat our lunch and go on again. As daylight faded we'd come trudging home, hungry, tired, but very happy.

The second excerpt describes the influence of two different types of schools and pupils:

At the end of my sophomore year I changed from a very traditional to a progressive school. I believe this school has done more than anything else to change my personality. The conservative school taught us to "speak only when spoken to" and never to venture our own opinions on any subject. My present school's policies are quite the opposite; it is slowly but surely making a new person out of me. It has dispelled most of my self-conscious-

¹ Ruth Strang, *Every Teacher's Records* (Revised Edition), p. 13. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1947.

I'll have to make my own place. Life is an experience, and I think sometimes as we grow older we are inclined to forget that and take life a little too seriously. I don't think that everything that happens has to have a good side. It's going to be the good and the bad alike. . . .

The next quotations illustrate the kind of autobiographical material that may be obtained from less mature and less gifted children in the eighth grade of a public school: *

I was born on February 23, 1923. My mother and father was very good to me. I heard that I was a very pretty baby. When my cousin was borned, I did not have enough attention. I would always fight with him. As I grew older, I got some sense and did not fight with him.

When I started to go to school, my teacher used to like me very much. I was one of the best boys in the room. When I got into the higher grades, I began to dislike school. Every time I had a chance, I would stay out of school.

One day my father told me that if I would improve in school, I would get a bicycle for Christmas. After that I began to grow very interested in the things we did in school. . . .

I built a Puppet Show for a teacher, and then was on a committee to build and produce a puppet stage and show. The show was very successful.

When I came to Junior High School, I was frightened by all the people. After a couple of years, I became a very good pupil.

Many of the children in this group have foreign-born parents. Their autobiographies frequently mention family relationships:

My mother and dad say I was good when I was young compared to what I am now. I have always enjoyed fighting with my brothers and sisters; in fact, I still do.

My brother and I have many quarrels, but I am glad to have an older brother. He always takes my girl friends and I to school dances and parties and he never allows boys to act out of place in front of me. My mother always says I should be glad I have a brother, which I am.

My brother is much older than me and spends a great deal of his time teaching me to swim and play ball and tennis. One day I went swimming with him. The life guard came up to me and asked who had taught me to swim so well, and of course the credit went to my brother. I also have an older sister who has taught me the art of being a lady.

* Spelling and grammar are uncorrected.

Teachers, too, come in for their share of comment:

One teacher that I did not like was the gym teacher. She always picked on me. I was rather fat and she always made me turn somersaults and cartwheels in front of the class and they always laughed.

Some of these eighth graders are beginning to think about their vocations. One describes her interest as follows:

I love to do what Mom calls a waste of time, and that is to draw dress designs. I have taken a few art lessons, but I didn't like them. Another hobby that I have is to buy many different styles of clothes, and lots of them. As soon as I'm through school I mean to begin to study dress designing right away. It's the only thing I'm interested in. I'd like to take a trip next year to Paris to study styles, but I can't, so I'll stay at home.

Autobiographies written by college students are usually *more deeply introspective than those of younger children*. Examples of the personal documents written by Harvard freshmen as part of a comprehensive personality study may be found in Murray's *Explorations in Personality*.⁹

Form of Autobiography. In form, the autobiography may vary from a freely written account to a series of detailed answers to questions. The instructions may be simple as follows:

Write the story of your life as fully as possible. There is no time limit and no need to hurry. Put in just as much information as you can about events or anything else you would care to include.

The following instructions are somewhat more directive:

Read the outline to get a general idea of the possible scope of the autobiography; then write freely; and finally reread the outline to see that you have covered all the main items.

The items in the outline included family history and relations, economic and social home conditions, early development, school experiences, sex experiences, recreation, relations with friends, emotional development, wishes and interests, goals and aspirations, social impulses, educational plans, vocational experiences and plans, estimate of oneself and the world. The student may be also asked to write about what

⁹ Henry A. Murray, *Explorations in Personality, a Clinical and Experimental Study of Fifty Men of College Age, by Workers at the Harvard Psychological Clinic*. Oxford University Press, New York, 1938.

has made him happy or unhappy, what he likes or dislikes. One approach that has been used successfully is to say, "Try to make me feel the way you felt, and see things the way you saw them."

A detailed questionnaire may be prepared to cover the same topics, or as many as are appropriate to the age and interest of the group. The autobiographical questionnaire used in Breathitt County, Kentucky,¹⁰ exemplifies a simple form suitable for boys and girls in the elementary or junior high school.

If spelling, punctuation, and literary style are not stressed, the student's account is likely to be more authentic and descriptive of his true feelings. The way in which the individual presents his life story, when he is left to write freely, in itself reveals his personality. Some persons may write only of external events without explanation; others may try to justify their actions; still others may confess faults they have previously concealed; a few try to analyze the motives leading to their every act.

Limitations of the Autobiography. Autobiographical material is limited by the student's ability to express himself in writing. It is a good method for the verbally inclined who are reticent in face-to-face relations. Because it may be influenced by literary models or the desire to impress the reader, it is misleading to accept it at face value. Yet divergence from reality is in itself important. If written fully prior to an interview, the autobiography may limit the interviewee's spontaneity and free flow of communication; if the person feels that he has already "told all," it may be difficult to get him to talk freely in the interview. On the other hand, having written the autobiography may stimulate him to talk further about himself; it may make a point of contact that will assist in establishing a good relationship with the interviewer.

Values of the Autobiography. The values of the life history and autobiography tend to outweigh their disadvantages. The life history gives a general total sketch of the individual—a *Gestalt*—into which other pieces of information can be fitted and against which they can be interpreted. The autobiography

¹⁰ Ruth Strang and Latham Hatcher, *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools*, pp. 199-208. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1915.

frequently throws light on social, psychological, and educational conditions, hidden and changing interests, aspirations and desires, views of oneself and of one's role in the world. This kind of information may not be obtainable by means of any other technic.

In the study and treatment of delinquent boys in Chicago, Shaw found that the boy's own story "reveals useful information concerning at least three important aspects of delinquent conduct: (1) the point of view of the delinquent, (2) the social and cultural situation to which the delinquent is responsive, and (3) the sequence of past experiences and situations in the life of the delinquent."¹¹ In books describing juvenile delinquents and in other books about adolescents the biographical excerpts are often the most illuminating passages.

The autobiography suggests leads that can be further explored in the process of counseling; it may serve as an introduction to the interview. It sometimes indicates confusion, disorganization, or compulsive tendencies that call for expert psychotherapy. If students are encouraged to write their autobiographies, counseling service should be available to those for whom the experience has been emotionally disturbing.

Another of its values is the release that comes from expressing pent-up feelings. This is the so-called catharsis, or "psychic safety valve," that operates when emotions are released in any creative form. Sometimes it reveals unrecognized ability in writing.

The autobiography helps the student to know himself. One may achieve objectivity by seeing his life spread out before him, as it were, and getting a steady, clear-eyed look at it. Thus the writing of an autobiography may help the individual to understand some of his inner conflicts.

In short, personal documents of all kinds are another source of understanding for the student and for his teacher or teacher-counselor.

¹¹ Clifford R. Shaw, *The Jack-Roller*, p. 3. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1930.

10

Psychological Tests; Projective Methods

There comes a time when the teacher wants to supplement his daily observation and informal methods of child study with psychological tests. From standardized tests he may learn more about a student's present ability to do school work, his achievement in different fields of study, his capacity to acquire certain skills under favorable conditions, and his interests.

The teachers should take an active part in deciding which tests should be given. First they will consider what kind of information they need about their pupils. Then they will examine several of the tests recommended for the purposes they have in mind. By studying these tests they will not only see which are most appropriate for their students, but also get a better idea of what each test measures. This preliminary study will enable them to interpret and use the test results more wisely in the light of all the other information they have about the students.

IS THE STUDENT ABLE TO DO SCHOOL WORK?

Teachers are frequently confronted with such questions as these: Does this student have the mental ability to do algebra, Latin, and other college-preparatory subjects? Is he likely to

succeed in college? If so, in which college? Will he be able to do the kind of abstract thinking required in the professions, or in certain other vocations?

Examples of Group Tests of Mental Ability. Help in answering these questions can be obtained from intelligence or scholastic aptitude tests. These are of many different kinds, measuring different aspects of mental ability. Those most widely used by teachers are the group intelligence tests. Among the group tests of mental abilities are the following:

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

California Test of Mental Maturity. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California. Grades: kindergarten-1, 1-3, 4-8. Yields both a verbal and a quantitative or number score.

Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests. Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Nine batteries beginning with Grade 1 and continuing to adult level.

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 1-4, 4-9.

Pintner General Ability Tests: Verbal Series. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

Pintner-Cunningham Primary Test. Kindergarten—Grade 2.

Pintner-Durost Elementary Test. Grades 2-4.

Pintner Intermediate. Grades 4-9.

FOR JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL OR BOTH

American Council Psychological Examination. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C. High School Edition, grades 9-12. Yields both a verbal and a quantitative score.

California Test of Mental Maturity. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California. Grades 7-10, 9-adults.

Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities. Science Research Associates, Chicago. For ages 11 to 17.

Junior Scholastic Aptitude Test sponsored by the Secondary Education Board; distributed and scored by the Educational Records Bureau, 21 Audubon Ave., New York City. Grades 7-9.

Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests. Highest battery. Grade 9-maturity.

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Beta Test, grades 4-9; Gamma Test, high school and colleges.

Pintner General Ability Tests: Verbal Series. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 9-12.

SRA Tests of Primary Mental Abilities for Ages 11-17. Science Research

Associates, Chicago. A short form of the Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities.

Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 7-12.

FOR COLLEGE

American Council Psychological Examination. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C. College Freshman Edition.

College Entrance Examination Board Scholastic Aptitude Test. College Entrance Examination Board, Princeton, N.J.

Thorndike CATD Scales. Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, New York City. For age 3 to superior adult.

Yale Educational Aptitude Tests. Educational Records Bureau, 21 Audubon Ave., New York.

Individual Intelligence Tests. If a student's results on group intelligence tests do not correspond to the impression the teacher has gained from observation and daily contacts, the need for an individual test given by a qualified psychologist or counselor is indicated. This is likely to be more reliable than a group test for two reasons: (1) it is a more comprehensive measure of mental functioning, and (2) a skilled examiner is able to induce the subject to put forth his best effort on each part of it.

The most widely used individual test is the Revised Stanford-Binet Scale, whose two forms are appropriate for children up to about sixteen years of age. The results of the Binet are reported as mental age, which may be used in computing IQ—the individual's mental age divided by his chronological age.

The more recently developed Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children is in some ways superior to the Binet. It yields information on ten different kinds of mental tasks and its total score has two subdivisions—a verbal IQ and a performance IQ. For older adolescents and adults the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale has proved valuable. The scale consists of ten subtests; five deal with verbal material and five are of the performance type. It is possible to compute a verbal, a performance, and a total IQ.

Performance and Non-Language Tests. If there is indication that the individual is not demonstrating his true mental alertness because of a language handicap, the psychologist may give him a test that requires no reading or vocabulary

knowledge. This is the performance type of test that is used widely with preschool children and, for the purpose suggested, with older children and adults. These tests, made up of form-board or other concrete materials, do not require the use or understanding of language. At the elementary school level, the two most commonly used tests of this type are the Grace Arthur Point Scale of Performance Tests and the Pintner-Paterson Scale of Performance Tests. At the adolescent and adult levels, the performance tests on the Wechsler-Bellevue Scale often yield a higher score than the verbal tests, as they involve verbal skill only in the simple directions.

There are some group tests that attempt to measure intelligence without the use of language. Examples are the Pintner Non-Language Primary Test (Kindergarten-Grade 2); the Pintner Non-Language Test (Grades 4-8); Progressive Matrices: A Perceptual Test of Intelligence, published in London, England, by H. K. Lewis & Co. (Grades 1-8); and Revised Beta Examination, published by the Psychological Corporation, New York (Grades 3-adult).

Interpretation of Test Results. Although a person who is intelligent enough to be a teacher should, with practice, be able to administer and score a group intelligence test, he should get help from a specialist in interpreting and using its results. The individual intelligence tests should be administered only by persons who have had specialized training in this field.

The expert tester transmits to the teacher not only his best estimate of the student's intelligence level, but also a description of the student's behavior while taking the test and an analysis of the relation among responses. For example, one student may make his highest scores on the verbal tests, show unusual ability to remember sentences and digits, but fall down in mathematical concepts and reasoning.

The results of group tests are most appropriately reported to teachers in the form of percentile ratings. These show the point on the distribution of scores at which an individual stands. Thus a percentile of 90 means that 10 per cent of the scores were higher than his and 90 per cent fell below his. Similarly, a percentile of 50 means that he stood at the middle of the distribution of scores in his class, or in the larger popu-

lation tested by the makers of the test. Knowing accurately a student's percentile rating in intelligence, a teacher has a better idea of what academic achievement to expect of him.

Limitations of Tests of Mental Ability. These tests do not tell everything about an individual's mental ability. If there be a "general intelligence," or powerhouse of mental energy, such as that postulated by Spearman, which can be turned on for the performance of any kind of mental task, no test has yet been devised to measure it adequately. Nor are these tests pure measures of native mental ability; they all depend on school achievement, especially in vocabulary, reading, and arithmetic. The scores are also influenced by practice in taking tests of this kind and by coaching. They do not always distinguish between a student's potential mental ability and his present functional level, nor do they appraise the individual's success in dealing with life situations. Moreover, none measures adequately all the aspects of intelligence—the adaptable, creative kind of intelligence, social intelligence, mechanical intelligence. Progress is being made, however, in describing and measuring a variety of factors—especially linguistic and quantitative—that enter into intelligent behavior.

A single score may be misleading. For a number of reasons, a person may not demonstrate his real ability on a test. Consequently his scores may fluctuate from test to test. Cases have been reported in which the score changed as much as forty points from one test to another. All this spells the need for caution in the use of intelligence test results.

DOES THE STUDENT HAVE ENOUGH READING ABILITY?

As ability to read affects practically all school achievement, it is important for the teacher to have precise knowledge of the student's reading proficiency. What does he remember after reading passages of different kinds? How does he interpret and organize the ideas he gets from reading? Does he stumble over common words? Over technical words? What is his attitude toward reading? What does he read?

Examples of Reading Tests. Various tests may be used to measure comprehension, vocabulary, and speed of reading:

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Achievement Tests. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Primary Test, grades 2-4; Intermediate Test, grades 3-6.

Gates Basic Reading Tests. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Grades 3-8.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Elementary Test, grades 4-8.

FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Diagnostic Reading Tests. Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Educational Records Bureau, 21 Audubon Ave., New York.

Cooperative Reading Comprehensive Test, C 1. Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Four forms.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Advanced Test.

Traxler Reading Tests. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois. Silent Reading Test, grades 7-10; High School Reading Test, grades 10-12.

Van Wagenen Reading Scales. Education Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Grades 7-12.

Van Wagenen-Dvorak Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities. Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Junior Division, grades 6-9; Senior Division, grades 10-12 and college.

FOR UPPER HIGH SCHOOL GRADES AND COLLEGE

Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test, C 2. Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Advanced Test.

Nelson-Denny Reading Test. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. Grade 9 through college.

Value of Reading Tests. Reading ability below expectation is easily detected by means of tests. Jack, for example, in the ninth grade had better than average scholastic aptitude, judged by his score on the Otis Quick-Scoring Test, Gamma form, and by his teachers' comments. However, on the Iowa Silent Reading Test, given at his entrance into senior high school, he reached a grade level of only 7.6, indicating that his reading ability was almost a year and a half behind his actual school level. This evidence of retardation in reading was borne out by his own statement that he spent three hours or more every night on his lessons.

Used together, intelligence tests and standardized and informal reading tests indicate fairly well the student's present capacity for academic achievement.

WHAT HAS THE STUDENT LEARNED UP TO NOW?

Standardized achievement tests may be used occasionally to supplement the teacher's informal tests. They test basic skills and cover a wide range of facts that students of a given age and grade are generally expected to know. The construction of a valid standardized test involves a survey and appraisal of objectives in the subject, the construction and analysis of items, and the obtaining of norms for various grades and ages.

Standardized Achievement Tests. The following are some of the widely used achievement tests:

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts. Elementary Battery, grades 3-5; Advanced Battery, grades 6-8.

Metropolitan Achievement Tests (Revised). World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Batteries for grades 1, 2, 3, 4-6, 7-8.

Progressive Achievement Tests. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California. Batteries for grades 1-3, 4-6, 7-9, 9-13.

Stanford Achievement Tests. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Batteries for grades 2-3, 4-6, 7-9.

FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

The Cooperative Tests in various school and college subjects. Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Grades 7-12.

Cooperative General Culture Test (Revised) Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.

Inglis Tests of English Vocabulary. Ginn and Company, Boston, Massachusetts. Grades 9-12.

Iowa Tests of General Educational Development. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois. Junior and Senior High School.

Lincoln Diagnostic Spelling Test. Educational Records Bureau, New York. Four forms. Junior and senior high school.

Michigan Vocabulary Profile Test. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Grades 9-12.

Tests of General Educational Development Battery. Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.

Use of Achievement Tests. These tests measure only certain kinds of achievement. For example, the highly creative and imaginative student may have difficulty in channeling his responses into a multiple-choice form of answer. Before selecting a test, a teacher might well go over each item and check those that he teaches and that are in accord with his objectives. The teacher will find the tests useful in throwing light on these questions: Does the student have sufficient background in the field to go on with advanced work? What progress has he made during the year in his knowledge of the field? In colleges, achievement tests in each subject have been found useful in placing students in the courses for which they have adequate background. For example, a freshman who stands high on a standardized French test might be placed in second-year rather than first-year French. Thus duplication between high school and college work is decreased and the student is challenged to do his best.

WHAT APTITUDES DOES THE STUDENT HAVE?

If *aptitude* is defined as "the ability to acquire skill under appropriate conditions, regardless of whether those conditions have arisen or not," it becomes evident that tests that measure this quality are few in number. In industry, progress has been made in devising tests that appraise a worker's potential skill. For example, finger dexterity tests are used to indicate "teachability" in certain mechanical processes. In education, however, there are no entirely satisfactory tests to show whether or not a student has promise for fields of study in which he has had no previous experience.

However, the following tests have been used in schools to supply part of the information on which decisions about choice of course and vocation are made:

- Seashore Measures of Musical Talent.* RCA Manufacturing Company, Inc., Camden, New Jersey.
- Meier-Seashore Art Judgment Test.* Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Iowa City, Iowa.
- Cardall-Gilbert Test of Clerical Competence.* Science Research Associates, Chicago.

Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers. Acorn Publishing Company, Rockville Center, New York.

Test of Mechanical Comprehension (a paper-and-pencil test) by Bennett and Fry. Psychological Corporation, New York 8, New York.

Minnesota Assembly Test. C. H. Stoeckling Company, Chicago 20, Illinois.

When administered individually by experts, such tests yield helpful information about the subject's attitudes as well as about his aptitude. They indicate his level of performance at a particular time and show how he goes about working on tasks unfamiliar to him.

WHAT ARE THE TRENDS OF HIS PERSONALITY?

If a teacher has systematically observed a student in various situations, interviewed him from time to time, and read his autobiographical material under favorable conditions, she should have valuable information about his functioning personality. Paper-and-pencil personality test results are unsatisfactory: they are easily influenced by the subject's desire to make a good impression, by inaccurate self-appraisal, and by misinterpretation of the directions or the items. One secondary school, which experimented for several years with a battery of personality and interest tests, found that "the expenditure of time and effort was not commensurate with the benefit the student derived from so elaborate a program."¹

Examples of Personality Tests. For college students, a test that seems to be useful in individual cases is the Bell Adjustment Inventory (Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California). It consists of questions relating to home, health, and social and emotional adjustment. The Allport-Vernon A Study of Values (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts) also explores a very important aspect of a student's life. Another example of the personalities questionnaire is Allport's ascendance-submission self-rating scheme. This involves thirty-three situations and one hundred twenty-three responses in the form prepared for men. There is another form for women. Allport reports a reliability of .74 to .78. The following are sample situations:

¹ Miriam Denness Cooper, "Testing and Diagnosis in a Secondary School," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 9:57, October, 1915.

1. At church, a lecture, or an entertainment, if you arrive after the program has commenced and you find that there are people standing but also that there are front seats available which might be secured without "priggishness" or discourtesy, but with considerable conspicuousness, do you take the seats?
habitually
occasionally
never
2. (a) When you see someone in a public place or crowd whom you think you have met or known, do you inquire of him whether you have met before?
sometimes
rarely
never
(b) Are you embarrassed if you have greeted a stranger whom you have mistaken for an acquaintance?
very much
somewhat
not at all

Values of Personality Inventories. Allport's statements regarding the test for ascendance-submission apply in general to other inventories of this kind. He believes this test "will prove of service in certain forms of personnel work, particularly within college." The uses which he suggests are: (1) to help the student "face himself in comparison with his contemporaries," i.e., to give self-knowledge; (2) to give certain very tentative suggestions regarding choice of vocation: for example, that those who show ascendant reactions would be "at a special advantage in salesmanship, executive work, factory management, law, politics, organizing, and kindred occupations"; and (3) to consider the qualities they seem to possess in placing them in positions. Since the test can be given in a half hour, the incidental information which it might yield about an individual would justify its use.

If rapport can be secured by interesting the student in taking a test as a means of self-evaluation and help in solving his personal problems, such a test may prove to be of value in student personnel work. Certain personality tests may be given to groups of students to detect those who need counseling. They may also be used as a point of contact in interviewing individual students.

WHAT INTERESTS DOES THE STUDENT HAVE?

In elementary school and high school a simple interest inventory or questionnaire, administered under favorable conditions, is a quick way of surveying a student's interests. The Hildreth Personality and Interest Inventory (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York), which has both an elementary and a high school form, has been widely used for this purpose.

Examples of Interest Inventories. Of the vocational interest inventories, the Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory (McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois) and the Kuder Preference Record (Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois) have been widely used with high school students. The Cleeton inventory explores interest in nine occupational groups; whereas the Kuder procedure yields a profile of preference for nine fields of interest—mechanical, persuasive, computational, scientific, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical.

With college students, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California) has been the most widely used for the exploration of vocational interest especially of men.

Limitations of Interest Inventories. If the teacher uses these interest inventories, he should be very careful not to confuse interest and ability. The correspondence between interest and ability is far from perfect, and the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks, for example, fall far short of exploring the world of work: they have keys for only thirty-six occupations for men and seventeen for women, out of a possible 20,000 occupations. Consequently the counselor should not encourage the student to fix his attention on the particular vocations on which he scores highest.

The best procedure is to learn in an interview as much as possible about a student's interests, as he thinks over the school subjects, work experiences, hobbies, and leisure activities that have given him most satisfaction. Thus he will review the history of his vocational interests, which may be compared with the results of an interest inventory.

ADMINISTRATION AND SCORING OF TESTS

Good procedure in the administration of tests includes the following steps:

1. See that all supplies are at hand—test papers, manual of directions, extra pencils, and erasers if necessary. Guard against interruptions during the test period.

2. To insure the students' interest and cooperation, tell them the plan of testing and something about the test's value.

3. Maintain an atmosphere that is businesslike and stimulating but not tense.

4. Follow scrupulously the directions provided by the authors of the test.

5. Observe the individuals taking the test to note any failure to follow the directions or any lack of effort that might affect the results.

6. Check the scoring of each test to prevent errors.

7. Report scores in the form most meaningful and useful for guidance.

The following description of a psychologist at work concretely illustrates good procedure, which a teacher giving a test could easily imitate:

Dr. Nagel administered the test with an air of calm assurance, and in a pleasant conversational tone that was reflected in the students' lack of strain or tension. In giving directions she followed the standard instructions, but not mechanically. When the directions were particularly difficult, she stressed key words in the instructions and gave helpful cautions. When a few students, over-eager to begin, started to turn the pages too soon, the examiner moved over in their direction. She was constantly alert to students who departed in any way from the instructions. In instances where several students had difficulty in finding their place, Dr. Nagel stopped the others and repeated the directions, without embarrassing the confused ones. At another point, when some pupils were about to begin before the group was ready, the examiner cautioned, "Just a minute—I haven't given the signal to begin." During the period she moved around the room quietly and unobtrusively, noting any distraction or lack of effort or concentration. From time to time she gave whatever aids the directions permitted: "Be sure to turn to page nine as soon as you have finished page eight . . . Do you have page eleven before you?" Once she had to stop and say, "I'm going to ask, please, that you observe the

starting and stopping signals just a little bit better." One boy repeatedly made a mark on his test paper after the examiner had called "Stop"; each time she saw to it that he erased the last mark. Thus the examiner tried to be sure that each student was putting forth his optimum of effort and was taking the test under standard conditions.

The report that the guidance specialist makes to the teacher should include a class sheet showing each student's total score and percentile or grade equivalent and also his scores on the subtests. The total scores may be arranged in order from the highest to the lowest. Lines may be used to indicate the median and quartile points for the group. At the bottom of the page the test norms derived from a larger number of pupils of the same grade should be given.

INTERPRETATION AND USE OF TESTS

To summarize: Teachers should interpret and use test results as follows:

1. They should know which test was used, by whom and under what conditions it was given, and whether the subject was doing his best. An IQ on the Binet test obtained by a skilled examiner who was able to get the full cooperation of the subject, is quite different from a so-called "IQ" obtained from a group intelligence test administered by an inexperienced teacher.
2. They should know the student's background, the opportunities he has had to acquire the kinds of ability measured by the test, and whether he is "test wise," that is, experienced in taking standardized tests.
3. They should know the test—what kinds of abilities it really measures. This can be learned by studying descriptions and criticisms of the test. The *Mental Measurements Yearbook* by Oscar Buros (Highland Park, New Jersey, Mental Measurements Yearbook) is particularly helpful for this purpose, as are also standard books on testing.
4. They should use test results only in connection with all the other information available about the individual—never base any important decision on the results of a single test.
5. They should interpret the test results to individuals only

after ascertaining their readiness for the information. The general practice is not to give written reports of IQ or even of percentile ratings of intelligence. Even though a parent or student is intellectually able to comprehend such a report, he might not be emotionally ready to accept it. Consequently, he might twist the information to fit his preconceived ideas and believe only what he wants to believe. In a verbal report only information that is most likely to be used wisely by the person can be given, and misconceptions can be more easily corrected.

6. They should adapt the interpretation of test results to the individual's need. For example, a person whose test results are above average but who nevertheless feels discouraged and inferior, may profit by going over his test results in detail. That will show him just where he stands with reference to others at his age and grade. Any person, and especially one whose test results are low, needs to have emphasized what he *can* do rather than what he cannot do.

LIMITATIONS OF TESTS IN COUNSELING

Many of the limitations recognized in tests as they have been used are the result of faulty administration and interpretation rather than of defects inherent in the tests themselves. If, for instance, the teacher-counselor depends on tests as his main source of information about an individual, he may obtain an incomplete or erroneous picture. If he is not familiar with the particular kind of mental ability measured by a given test, he may make faulty generalizations. If he introduces tests into the counseling process prematurely, instead of in response to a need felt by the counselee, he may block the counselee from giving directly valuable information.

The difference of opinion on the value in the counseling process of knowledge obtained from tests seems to stem from conflicting estimates of the counselee's ability to appraise his own assets and limitations correctly. Although the counselee has within himself important resources for understanding himself, which should be utilized to the full, his judgment is not infallible. His self-knowledge may be distorted by such

factors as his parents' ambitions and expectations for him, his preconceived idea of himself, his 'inability to think clearly about himself. He frequently feels the need of the more objective information that tests give. Both student and teacher-counselor, however, should recognize the difficulties in the interpretation of test results and the possibility of errors in administration and scoring, which, though unjustifiable, actually do occur in practice.

A second type of limitation is inherent in the tests themselves. For the most part, they reward a stereotyped kind of answer and discourage the unique, creative response. They fail to measure adequately many important kinds of learning. It is most difficult to devise tests that measure ability to think critically, to appreciate what is read, and to apply knowledge gained. Knowledge of significant current problems that a particular class have studied intensively may not be included at all in a standardized test. However, new tests are being developed to measure more of the abilities needed by an effective citizen.

A third type of limitation may be removed by further research on the relation between the results of a particular test and achievement in a certain course or vocation. In some industries this kind of relation has been studied with reference to specific jobs. In education, many correlations have been computed between intelligence test scores and teachers' marks, but practically no information is available on the relationship between test scores and future success in various fields.

VALUES OF TESTS IN STUDENT COUNSELING

Despite their limitations, tests have a place in the total study of an individual's potentialities. As his assets and limitations become clearer, his placement in appropriate learning situations can be made with more certainty. Tests decrease guesswork in guidance. Study of the detailed responses on the test paper gives a clearer idea of how the individual's mind works in response to the tasks set by the test. When standardized tests are administered individually by a skillful observer, they yield additional insight into the subject's attitudes, emo-

tional stability, and problem-solving methods. If tests have been given as a routine procedure and their results have been recorded on the cumulative record card, the counselor has an initial background valuable to his understanding of the individual.

When an individual is not speaking freely in an interview, a discussion of test results sometimes unlocks his reticence and helps him to think more freely about his personal problems. Such a discussion may serve as a springboard to a more therapeutic type of relationship. Details from test responses, especially those in personality and interest inventories, suggest possible areas that can be tactfully touched in interviews.

To the individual who needs objective evidence of his abilities or his limitations, test results are more convincing than any general statements made by his friends or his counselor. The tests give the counselee one more bit of evidence that will be useful to him in thinking through his problems or his life plan.

PROJECTIVE METHODS IN STUDENT COUNSELING

In the understanding of personality, projective methods are rapidly gaining ground on questionnaires and personality tests and inventories. There are several reasons for this: (1) questionnaires and inventories too often give the impression of probing, whereas the projective method begins with a spontaneous response; (2) answers on inventories can be easily faked, consciously or unconsciously, whereas in the projective technic the person often reveals his inner world without realizing that he has done so; (3) the connection between the diagnosis based on an inventory and the situations in which something can be done about it is perhaps less close than in the projective method. In the latter, a person reveals his personality in response to an unfamiliar, indefinite stimulus for which he has no ready-made, habitual, or conventional response. Thus he discloses his private, inner world of feelings and meanings to the examiner, who records verbatim what he says. Later the examiner studies the record to see what personality pattern is suggested by the subject's responses. The

personality structure uncovered by the projective technics helps the counselor to understand why a person behaves as he does.

The Rorschach Method: The best known and most widely used of the projective technics is the Rorschach. The stimuli presented to the subject consist of ten selected ink blots, some colored, the majority black on a white ground. The administration of the technic is disarmingly simple: the examiner says, "People see all sorts of things in these ink-blot pictures; now tell me what you see, what it might be for you, what it makes you think of." The subject may say, "It's a giraffe sitting down," or he may go on to describe much more than he sees in the ink blot. The examiner records all responses, including the subject's facial expression, bodily movements, evidences of tension, and side remarks. In interpreting the subject's responses, the examiner avoids inferring certain characteristics from any specific responses. Rather, he tries to get a sense of structure and organization by studying the subject's total responses. Although elaborate scoring methods have been developed, the personality picture derived from the ink blots depends a great deal on the clinical insight of the examiner. That is why it is generally agreed that a person should have at least three years of clinical training, and experience in the Rorschach method, before he can qualify as a Rorschach expert.

In clinics the Rorschach is frequently used to determine whether the individual is in need of psychiatric help. Sometimes it uncovers more serious conflicts and personality trends than observation of the subject's behavior indicates; sometimes it gives a more hopeful picture than the case history data would suggest.

The Thematic Apperception Test. Another widely used projective technic is the Morgan-Murray Thematic Apperception Test. This consists of twenty pictures depicting dramatic events. In each picture there is one person with whom the subject can identify himself. The subject is asked to make up a story for which the picture could serve as illustration, telling specifically what has happened, what the persons are thinking and feeling, and what their relations are to one another.

Through his comments the subject may reveal fears, conflicts, fantasies, disorganization, or other characteristics.

Other Projective Techniques. The same principles are applied in other projective methods employing widely different stimuli: clay, finger paints, and other art materials, nebulous cloud pictures, realistic pictures depicting dramatic events, toy families and furniture, puppet shows, words to which the subject responds by making a simile, incomplete sentences, and stories. The examiner records:

What the subject says and does spontaneously.

What he does in response to questions or suggestions.

How he feels about the whole situation or any part of it.

The quality of his behavior throughout the period.

In every one of these techniques, the subject is free to respond in his own way. In so doing, he reveals his unique personality trends. His responses may suggest characteristics such as introversion, evasiveness, capacity for organizational or related thinking, originality, inner resources for adjustment to the outside world, jealousy or other feelings toward members of his family, emotional involvements, repressions, and conflicts.

Teachers' Use of the Projective Method. Although the teacher or teacher-counselor does not have the background and training to use these projective techniques himself, he is likely to hear more and more about them. If he works with specialists on cases, he should have at least the elementary knowledge of projective techniques that has been given here. He will learn more about their interpretation and use from working with clinicians and guidance specialists who include the Rorschach, the Morgan-Murray Thematic Apperception Test, and other projective techniques in their diagnostic and therapeutic procedures.

cumulative record data in the same way. A student's daily behavior may be viewed as his way of projecting his conflicts and personality on the environment. In a permissive situation where the student feels free to express himself, he may reveal some of his inner conflicts, anxieties, fears, and ways of handling life problems. To evoke such responses, teachers have used pictures from magazines, slide films, and stories.

Reid² described the use of two projective-type materials with junior and senior high school pupils. The first is the unfinished story dealing with a situation common to adolescents.

"Claire sat over her breakfast unhappily. She was fifteen and growing prettier every day. But every day seemed to get harder, and sometimes Claire thought she hated growing up if life was going to be like this.

"Maybe, she thought as she spooned her oatmeal around the dish aimlessly, it was not life that was miserable but SCHOOL. It was a big black chunk out of your day, she reflected bitterly.

"This morning Claire could hardly bear the thought of leaving for school. Everything had gone wrong yesterday. Everything was sure to go wrong today."

Everyone has bad days at school. Surely everyone has wished fervently that he didn't have to go to school on a particular day. Claire seems like any teen-ager. When the story is presented to a class, the group is asked to complete the story by responding to the question, "Why do you suppose Claire felt that way?" Here are comments from one class [answering this question after they had heard the story]:

"Everyone was against her in school."

"Maybe she feels unwanted by other boys and girls."

"Maybe the girls don't bother with her."

"Maybe pupils made fun of her."

"Girls were jealous of her looks."

"She doesn't know how to get into conversations—no one wants her around."

"She wanted dates, to be part of something, part of the group. She wanted clothes, friends. She didn't know how to belong. She didn't have a boy to walk her to the station. She felt cold and left out."

"Girls never invited her to their parties. Maybe they didn't because she didn't care to be outside in the fresh air and didn't pay enough attention to the opposite sex."

"She can't get the work as good as the other children and when

² Chandos Reid, "The Classroom Teacher and Adolescent Adjustment," *Teachers College Record*, 52:300-311, May, 1951.

she asks questions she hears little noises here and there. So, she feels left out of the class."

Whatever the range of problems, discussion seldom lags when this story is used. The focus is soon determined by the group as they begin to discuss those reasons for Claire's behavior which are also their own and which they find representative of difficulties they do not know how to meet.²

The teacher may handle the discussion on different levels with any one of a number of objectives in mind. The group may limit their discussion to the story itself and think about the motives of the persons involved and factors that influence their choice. Or they may share their experiences in similar situations. If the problem is one of vital concern to them, they may study it still more intensively.

A picture which presents a similar situation may be used in the same way. Both story and picture may lead to role-playing of ways in which the situation might have been handled.

The projective techniques are still in an experimental stage. Their apparent simplicity sometimes leads to their use by inexperienced persons, whose interpretation of a subject's responses to any of the "unstructured" material may become so far-fetched as to be fantastic. The subjective nature of the interpretation of the subject's responses makes the intuition and clinical psychological background of the trained examiner a necessity. Despite these limitations, projective techniques are a promising new development. They give hope that eventually we shall be able to learn more about the unique, dynamic aspects of individual personality.

² *Ibid.*, p. 502.

11

The Technic of Interviewing

The interview is the backbone of the counseling process. It offers an opportunity for the student to use the resources within himself and those available to the counselor to gain insight and to make sound plans. In many instances a single interview with a student will provide the slight amount of assistance he needs to make a satisfactory adjustment. In other cases a series of thirty or more interviews may be needed as part of a total counseling procedure. Everything that has been said about the counseling process on pages 243 to 248 is pertinent here.

One frequently hears the statement: "The principal talked to him"—but no improvement in behavior resulted. Why? The reason may lie in the quality of the conversation. It is with the quality of these "conversations with a purpose" that this chapter is concerned.

ILLUSTRATIVE COUNSELING INTERVIEWS

The following stenographic reports of interviews, modified to prevent any possibility of identifying the persons, illustrate a few common types of interview that teachers hold with students. These reports furnish a concrete basis for a discussion of interview procedure. Before looking at the comments fol-

lowing each interview the reader should make his own analysis, noting good and poor procedures. Thus he will become more sensitive to the science and art of interviewing.¹

A "Nuisance" in Class. Bert, age fifteen, in grade 9A, has a Binet IQ of 113. His family's economic status is high, and there is considerable social pressure on him to make a good academic record. His vocational ambition is to become a physician. Bert is reported as constantly annoying teachers with his incessant talking. Typical is the following note from his English teacher: "Bert is a nuisance in my class. Perhaps it would be better for him to drop the course."

The first interview with his teacher-counselor proceeded as follows:

BERT (*Hands counselor note from the principal, telling of his difficulty with his English teacher.*)

COUNSELOR. Have a seat, Bert. We haven't had a chance to talk together this term.

BERT. No, not since last spring. That was when I came in to show you my grades.

COUNSELOR. I remember. I've often told other boys about your fine record. I'm sorry to get this note about the difficulty in Miss Carnahan's room. What happened?

BERT. Oh, it was nothing. I wasn't the only one talking. She became angry and sent me to Mr. Blair. She didn't send the others.

COUNSELOR. I wonder why not. (*No answer.*) Did they stop talking when she told them to?

BERT. Yes.

COUNSELOR. Did you?

BERT. No.

COUNSELOR. How will suspension in this class affect your chances for graduation?

BERT. Pretty seriously, I guess.

COUNSELOR. What would you suggest doing?

BERT. Could you see her for me?

COUNSELOR. I did once before and she said she would not permit further rudeness.

BERT. I didn't know she was going to get angry. I didn't mean to offend her.

COUNSELOR. Could you make her understand that? Suppose you try talking it over with her.

The next day Bert reported to the teacher-counselor that he had

¹ A more extensive opportunity to study the interviewing process is offered in another publication by the author, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practices*, Chap. VI-VII. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

during the entire interview her hands restlessly twisted and untwisted her handkerchief.

COUNSELOR. Come in, Jane, and have a chair. Miss Smith tells me that you've been having difficulty with math, and I thought maybe I could help you get things straightened out. What seems to be the trouble?

JANE (*in a low voice*). I just can't understand it, Miss Daly. All the others in the class get it all right, and I try. (*Voice rising hysterically.*) I really try. But I just can't understand math. I can't.

COUNSELOR. Well, that's nothing unusual. If you've done your best, there's no disgrace in failing.

JANE. But my father— (*Weeps silently.*)

COUNSELOR. What about your father, Jane? Does he scold you because you don't do better in math?

JANE (*indignantly; there is evidently love and understanding between these two*). Oh, no! No! But he's in the Army, and he uses math a lot, and he keeps telling me how important it is, and—and I don't want to let him down.

COUNSELOR. Yes, math is important in some vocations. What kind of work does your father do?

JANE. He's doing special work at the camp. He's going to send me to college. There wasn't enough money to send Eleanor [an older sister], but he wants me to go. And I keep thinking, "If I should fail!" All the girls I go with are in the accelerated group, and they're smart. I've never failed anything in high school. (*Sobs convulsively.*) And I keep thinking, "If I should fail!" All night long I think about it—suppose I can't get into college.

COUNSELOR. Have you thought of any way out?

JANE. No, my thoughts go around and around in circles and never lead anywhere.

COUNSELOR. What do you think of this idea, Jane? Suppose we shift you into an ordinary math group? Those classes do not move so rapidly as the accelerated group, and there would be more chance for you to ask questions.

JANE (*eagerly*). Oh, could you, Miss Daly? Could you?

COUNSELOR. I'm sure we can arrange it. We'll try to, anyway. Stop in to see me before you leave today, and I'll let you know what luck I have had in shifting your classes.

The teacher-counselor selected for Jane a young math teacher with a genuine interest in young people. This teacher agreed to enroll Jane in her class and to ask her only easy questions during her first week in the new group. Miss Daly hoped that experiencing some degree of success would restore the girl's former feeling of self-confidence. Genuinely concerned over the girl's inability to sleep and her intense anxiety about failure, she decided to telephone the child's mother. The mother told of Jane's dogged but

futile attempts to master math at home, of her overconscientiousness and her fits of depression.

Two weeks later Jane stopped by the counselor's office. The counselor greeted her warmly, and said, "Jane, I was thinking about you this morning and wondering how you are making out in your new class. How are things going?"

"Fine, Miss Daly! Just fine!" Jane answered. "They go more slowly in that class, and I really understand it now. I think I'm doing all right."

"Well, that's splendid, Jane. Suppose you bring me your report card when you get it, just so that we can check on your standing." Jane agreed, and after a little more chatting left to go to class.

Jane's new math teacher later told the counselor that Jane was "one of the best in the class."

This is far from being an ideal interview, but apparently it gave Jane help she needed in her confused and discouraged state. The teacher-counselor with her knowledge of resources for instruction was able to suggest a plan that would probably not have occurred to Jane. The girl responded well to the change in class. Although Jane presented evidence of being seriously disturbed, the counselor was wise in making an adjustment in the school program before referring the girl for more expert counseling and psychotherapy. By thus restoring her sense of confidence in herself and preventing the threat of failure, the counselor helped Jane to solve her immediate problem.

Continued counseling, however, was needed to pave the way for good adjustment in a carefully selected college or junior college. Choice of college would be especially important if reliable intelligence tests showed that Jane was in the lowest quarter in scholastic aptitude compared with other freshmen. An unsuitable college program would be likely to cause a recurrence of the emotional disturbance Jane had experienced in high school when placed in a situation presenting too great difficulty for her.

Transition Troubles. Mary entered a junior college in the fall. In the first quarter of the school year she had been reported to her teacher-counselor because of a defiant attitude toward her teachers, low marks, and disregard of regulations. She was an attractive girl, full of vitality, an only child from a small town, where her parents occupied a prominent position socially and financially. This was her first experience in being away from home.

MARY (*appearing at door, her face flushed, her dark eyes flashing, her attitude tense*). Miss Dennis, did you send for me?

COUNSELOR. Why yes, Mary. I like to get acquainted with all the new students, but have been very slow in doing so this year. That was an attractive party the junior class had last night, wasn't it? You seemed to be having a good time.

MARY (*relaxing a bit*). Yes, it was fun.

COUNSELOR. Were any of your friends here from Lawrence [her home town]?

MARY. Yes, three of them.

COUNSELOR. That was jolly. I suppose most of your high school crowd is away at college.

MARY. Yes, that's why I wanted to come.

COUNSELOR. Do you like being away at school?

MARY (*her face falling*). No, I don't (*in a defiant tone*). The girls are a bunch of snobs. And I don't like the teachers, either. They are always nagging at me and give me poor grades. I hate to be criticized.

COUNSELOR. You are sensitive to criticism.

MARY. Well, at home I always did as well as the rest of the crowd, even though I didn't study.

COUNSELOR. And here it's not that way?

MARY. Yes, and that worries me; I feel that something must be wrong with me.

COUNSELOR. Not necessarily. The difference may be in the two schools. Only the best students in a number of high schools come here and practically all of them expect to go on to college. That wasn't true of your home town high school, was it?

MARY. No, only a few went to college and the standards weren't as high as they are here.

COUNSELOR. So it's a great deal more to your credit to be an outstanding student here where the students are superior and the standards are higher than in a small town high school.

MARY. That's true. The work here is like the kind of work the other kids are having at college. I'm having the same kind of experiences they are having.

COUNSELOR. Your experiences here seem similar to theirs.

MARY. Yes. They talk a lot about new friends and sororities, and having to study much harder than they did in high school, and being more on their own. And I just realized that I am having the same experiences, too, but I've not been taking advantage of them.

COUNSELOR. What experiences haven't you taken advantage of?

MARY. Well, some of the girls have invited me to parties and asked me to go to town with them, and share their boxes from home, and I haven't been at all friendly to them.

COUNSELOR. You haven't met them half way.

open for Mary to come back again if she wanted to talk things over further.

Judged by standards of counseling and psychotherapy set for specialists in this field, this interview would seem superficial. Judged by standards set for the teacher-counselor, it should be rated helpful and constructive. The teacher-counselor recognized and used the resources within the girl herself for making a better adjustment in the junior college. If the girl's subsequent behavior indicated the need for more intensive counseling, the teacher-counselor was ready to use other available services.

Even when a short interview, such as those reported here, is apparently successful, its limitations should be clearly recognized. There is danger that even a competent interviewer may elicit only superficial responses from the interviewee and never reach the roots of the difficulty. He does not have time to develop important leads adequately. However, when the short contact is viewed, not in isolation, but as part of the student's total school experience, it becomes more significant.

SITUATIONS IN WHICH INTERVIEWS ARE USEFUL

Some of the situations in which the technic of interviewing is appropriate are listed here:

1. The teacher observes behavior which might be clarified by a personal interview.
2. The teacher-counselor is ready periodically to consider, in the light of all his knowledge of the student, what the school can do to further his best development.
3. A student's records show a discrepancy between ability and achievement, or other evidence of failure to realize his potentialities.
4. The student recognizes some special problem that requires the cooperative thinking of student and teacher or counselor, as, for example, change in program, unsatisfactory school behavior, failure in one or more subjects, reading difficulty, poor attendance or tardiness, problems of family and boy-girl relations, poor social adjustment, emotional instability.

5. A student is ready to choose a course of study or make plans for further education.

6. A student is ready to choose a vocational field most appropriate for him in the light of all the relevant factors.

7. An applicant is being considered for a school, college, or job.

8. An applicant has been accepted and the school wants to learn more about the kind of person he is.

9. A student is entering a new school or college—to help him orient himself and “get off to a good start.”

10. A student officer or a member of a group needs individual help in playing his role more effectively in the group.

PROCEDURES FOR THE COUNSELING INTERVIEW

No formula, of course, can be given which, if followed, will enable the teacher to do successful interviewing. The interview is far too individual and flexible a process for that. Its course is steered by continuous sensitivity to what the person being interviewed is thinking and feeling.

A few general suggestions, however, should help teachers to improve the quality of their interviews:

1. *Listen.* Almost invariably teachers talk too much in the interview. Being in the habit of teaching, they teach. Instead, they should take the attitude of learners; they should listen intently and learn. The student sometimes solves his problems without the interviewer saying a word. Worries often lose their emotional intensity as the student talks while the teacher listens.

2. *Accept and try to understand.* The teacher should also curb his reformer tendencies and accept the student as he is—his hostility, his unacceptable ways of meeting life's problems, his liabilities as well as his assets. The student wants to be understood—not to be judged, labeled, scolded, or praised. In any interview, the teacher should start where the student is, see things from his point of view, try to understand him, feel with him.

3. *Share responsibility.* The interview has aptly been called a “joint quest”—an interaction between two persons. It is

neither wholly "client-centered" nor "counselor-centered." The student has information and resources that the interviewer does not possess. Similarly, the interviewer has information and resources useful to the student. The two pool their resources. In this relationship of mutual trust and confidence, the student is stimulated to use his powers of self-analysis and constructive planning to best advantage. But the creative interviewer does more than this; he goes beyond the limited insights many students are able to achieve alone; he helps them to arrive at a better decision or plan.

4. *Have the necessary information.* In many types of interview, progress depends on having the facts with which to think straight. Lacking knowledge of the principles of mental hygiene, educational opportunities, social trends or conditions related to the student's life, the requirements of different vocations, or other necessary information, the teacher-counselor cannot serve as a resource when the student has reached the limits of his own ability to understand and handle the situation.

5. *Have faith.* Faith is a bridge between what the individual now is and what he can become. The interviewer's well-founded faith in the student's ability to make the best of himself leads him on. It helps him to see himself in a new light and to take a more hopeful view of the future.

With these few guiding principles in mind and heart, the interviewer is not likely to go far astray from good interviewing procedure. His success, however, is partially dependent upon his reputation. If students believe he is just, genuinely kind, honest, and straightforward, they will respond accordingly. Usually these qualities are expressed in a frank, friendly smile and other outward evidences of good humor and good will. If, on the other hand, the interviewer has unfortunately acquired the reputation for wasting the student's time in interviews, giving no constructive help, saying one thing to one student and another thing to another, repeating confidences, or becoming sentimental, students will avoid him whenever possible and, in compulsory interviews, will be as uncommunicative as clams. Students' response to the interviewer depends on what they know of and see in him.

THE APPRAISAL OF THE COUNSELING INTERVIEW

Although these general principles, the interviewer's reputation, and his non-verbal communication are most important, a few more details of interviewing procedure may be helpful to the inexperienced teacher. He may be helped by suggestions in the form of a self-rating chart. By studying his interviews afterward, he will gradually become more sensitive to good and poor procedure. On this scale the interviewer will indicate with a cross the point on the line between the two extremes at which he feels his interview falls—good procedure at the left, poor procedure at the right. It will also be helpful for him to check the items which he feels are in need of improvement.

SCALE FOR RATING INTERVIEWS

1. What was the setting for the interview?

Plenty of time scheduled	Insufficient time
Feeling of leisure	People waiting
Privacy	People bustling in and out
Pleasant lighting, and other provisions for interviewee's comfort	Telephone to be answered
	Desk cluttered with work to do
	Glare and other discomforts

2. What was the appearance and manner of the interviewer?

Pleasant voice	Unpleasant voice
Alert and keen	Fatigued, dull
Good health	Poor health
Poise and reasonable self-confidence	Uncertain and insecure
At ease and permissive	Ill at ease, bored
Genuine respect for interviewee	Indifferent
	Patronizing

3. How did the interviewee respond conversationally during the interview?

Talked freely	Tended only to answer questions briefly
Tried to think through the problem aloud	Uncommunicative
	Did not accept his responsibility in the interview

4. How did interviewer encourage the individual to get an understanding of himself and his relationships?

Successfully

By communicating through *tone of voice and manner* his understanding and acceptance of the interviewee's point of view—how he is viewing himself and his world

By following, in a natural way, clues the interviewee gave

By asking questions needed to clarify certain points

By interpreting interviewee's remarks when he shows readiness for interpretation

Unsuccessfully

By being completely passive, giving the impression of indifference

By telling interviewee what to do

By arguing or criticizing

By probing

By interpreting before interviewee was ready for it

5. How did the attitude of interviewee change during the interview?

Interviewee gained new and valuable insights and orientation; felt more hopeful and more confident in his ability *to handle the situation*; became increasingly independent of the interviewer; had a more friendly relationship

Interviewee became increasingly dependent upon the interviewer; took less responsibility for thinking through *the situation himself*; less self-confident; more hopeless; or more resistant to counselor

6. What resulted from the interview?

Better life adjustment—interviewee became able to carry out his own realistic and possible plans

No favorable change in behavior; a "ready-made plan," which the interviewer imposed upon the student, was not carried out

7. What was the effect of the interview on subsequent relationship with interviewer?

Student came voluntarily to the interviewer when he needed further help

Student avoided coming to the interviewer again

This kind of guide to the evaluation of an interview might well be used by the inexperienced counselor after each inter-

before the facts have slipped from the interviewer's memory. Whether the interviewer should take notes depends upon the purpose of the interview, the memory of the interviewer, and the attitude of the student who is being interviewed. If the student is disturbed by note-taking, the interviewer should refrain from taking notes even though his report may suffer as a result.

The interviewer should always be aware of the influence of a person's emotional "set." Self-pity and a desire to appear to as good advantage as possible, to arouse sympathy, or to please the interviewer frequently prevent a person from presenting facts in their true light. A person usually hesitates to report facts that are uncomplimentary to himself. Healy, however, in working with juvenile delinquents, has found it possible to win the confidence of a boy and to make him feel that it is for his good to tell what he knows about the problem. If a student feels that the teacher is cooperating with him in the solution of his problem, he will try to contribute as many relevant facts as possible. He may, however, be limited in ability to express himself verbally, to see relationships, to break through emotional barriers to self-insight.

VALUES OF THE INTERVIEW

There is no substitute for a warm and understanding relationship. This personal relationship can be built in the interview situation. There the teacher-counselor can give his full attention to the individual. There, too, the student often feels freer to express his thoughts and feelings than he does in a group. Moreover, he can go into this business of self-understanding more deeply, more thoroughly; the time is all his. No other technic creates so favorable a relationship for personal growth. Without the interview it is difficult to see how an individual could be effectively guided in self-discovery leading to self-realization.

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Developmental Records

The name *developmental records* is here substituted for the more usual term *cumulative records* because it directs attention to the use of the records as a means of furthering the student's best development. Any record system should be judged primarily by its efficiency in accomplishing this purpose.

More specifically, the principles that determine the soundness of a record system may be stated as follows:

1. The record is always a means to an end—that of helping the individual to understand himself and his relationships.

2. The record should show past development, present status, and goals and purposes for the future.

3. The record should include information on major aspects of the individual's development—physical, intellectual, social, and emotional.

4. The record should be in a form useful for counseling, especially for helping the individual to gain self-understanding.

5. When time is limited, as it invariably is, records should not be kept at the expense of more important values; there should be a nice balance between the amount of time spent in keeping records and the amount of time spent in using the information they contain.

6. The ideal record is unified. It is more than a collection

of unrelated bits of information. From it the counselor and student can see personality patterns and trends.

7. Provision should be made for continuity of records. If this is done, the understanding of a student will grow as he progresses from one educational level to another.

SITUATIONS IN WHICH RECORDS ARE NEEDED

The developmental record form should grow directly out of needs and actually be used to meet them. The needs for developmental records may be summarized as follows:

1. Records are needed when a periodic, systematic appraisal is made of each student for the purpose of seeing trends in his physical, intellectual, social, and emotional development. The appraisal is best made in a case conference, but the basic information for the appraisal should be available on the record. After recognizing these trends and needs for guidance, the school can try to provide the experiences and services each child should have.

2. Records are needed when parents want to confer about their child's progress. The same kind of information would be necessary here as in the periodic appraisal by teachers and guidance specialists.

3. Records are needed for individualized instruction. For example, knowledge of a child's experience and needs makes it possible for the classroom teacher or club sponsor to help him contribute most to the group; to develop his special interests and abilities; to meet his needs for approval, recognition, security, remedial instruction, advanced projects, "research," or creative work—all in the course of the regular class period.

4. Records are needed when the child has to make an important choice or decision, as, for example:

- a. Choice of course and extraclass activities.
- b. Change of course.
- c. Decision to do part-time work.
- d. Choice of vocational field.
- e. Decision on whether to leave school.
- f. Some other crisis in his life.

5. Records are needed when a problem of adjustment has arisen, such as:

- a. A behavior or discipline problem.
- b. A problem of social adjustment.
- c. A problem of failure in school work.
- d. A problem of boy-girl relations.
- e. A problem of adjustment to the family.

6. Records are needed when other institutions and employers request information about high school students; also when reports on pupil personnel have to be made for city or state departments of education.

7. Records are needed when changes in the curriculum and in school policy are contemplated. Too seldom are personnel records consulted for this purpose.

Although the main use of students' developmental records is in the guidance of individual students, the study of the group through statistical summaries, such as age-grade tables, distribution of scores on standardized tests, summaries of attendance, and number and kinds of physical impairments, should not be neglected by the administrator. These statistical summaries of personnel data provide a background against which the information about an individual student becomes more meaningful. For example, an individual IQ of 100 does not have the same meaning in a school where the average is 125 as it does in a school where the average is 90. These summaries suggest more questions than they answer: Why is there such a high percentage of absence among the college preparatory group? What are the characteristics of the students who are frequently absent? What is the intelligence and achievement of students who drop out of school? Why are the scores on comparable reading tests relatively lower each succeeding school year? Why are such a small percentage of remediable physical impairments uncorrected? Questions like these lead to important changes in policy and curriculum which, in turn, affect individual guidance.

The case conference is one of the most effective ways of using student personnel records, especially when case conferences are systematically held for every student in the school (see pages 443-451). This plan has been followed successfully

for years in the Nyack, New York, elementary and high schools.¹ In the elementary school the conferences are held before school begins, from 8:00 to 8:45. In the high school they are held the last period of the day, from 3:00 to 3:45. Pupils of teachers attending the case conference may go home, take subjects taught by other teachers, or have remedial work or interviews with individual teachers.

The conference is attended by the principal, counselor, part-time school psychologist, reading specialist, nurse, and teachers of special subjects. In the elementary school the two teachers who share the responsibility for teaching the basic skills to their two groups take responsibility for collecting information about the several pupils who are to be discussed at the case conference on a given day. In the high school the homeroom teachers take this responsibility. They summarize and present the data that have accumulated in each pupil's record and collect additional information that they feel is necessary. Others present add their observations and interpretation. Together they make a recommendation, which is carried out by the "basic" teacher or homeroom teacher, or by some other person to whom the responsibility has been delegated. During the year every pupil will be discussed in case conference at least once.

CONTENT OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD

For most of these purposes information about the child's past, his present, and his goals or purposes for the future is needed. Accordingly, the developmental record should include:

1. Past experiences that are likely to influence his present and future progress, such as:
 - a. Serious illness or accident, the effects of which persist; physical impairments.
 - b. Achievement and ability, as represented by teachers' marks and results of standardized tests.

¹ Warren K. Findley, "Description of Two Unique Ways in Which Cumulative Records Are Used," *Handbook of Cumulative Records*, Bulletin 1944, No. 5, pp. 82-86. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1945.

- c. Personality trends as rated by teachers and others who have had sufficient basis for observation.
- d. Attendance ratio of days absent to total school days.
- e. Extraclass and work experiences and the satisfaction or dissatisfaction attached to each.
- f. Some facts about family backgrounds—parents' birth-place, present residence, occupation, schooling, and marital status. .

2. Present status in the items mentioned in (1).

3. Future purposes and plans. As present behavior is influenced by one's goals and purposes, it is important to know these and how they are changing and developing. This includes not only long-term educational and vocational plans, but also something of the pupil's philosophy of life.

4. Follow-up after pupil has left school. This information is especially valuable for the guidance of pupils still in school and for formulating policies and making changes in the curriculum.

This analysis comes out with essentially the same items as are provided for on the American Council of Education cumulative record card. The question is: Is the information in the most functional form—most easily recorded and used by those persons who need the information for various purposes?

WHY DON'T TEACHERS USE CUMULATIVE RECORDS?

The failure of teachers to use the present type of cumulative record card more widely and effectively may be traced to a number of circumstances. First, they have not shared in the planning of the record; it has been "dumped in their laps." When teachers have worked together in determining the items to be included and the form in which they are to be recorded, they are much more likely to make good use of records. If they have not been convinced of the value of records, they will not use them in group work or counseling.

Second, the interpretation and use of the cumulative record require considerable time and skill. Teachers in one school complained of spending an hour getting information from a single record, of not knowing what to look for, and of not

being able to interpret the items. They suggested that the guidance department provide teachers with a digest of the information about their pupils. Teachers as a whole do not know how to interpret the records available. They need practice in studying, as a group, the same record and learning to extract the most significant information from it and then to use this information in the guidance of students.

Third, records are often not conveniently located for the teachers to use. If the teacher-counselor or homeroom teacher has a room of his own, the records for his counselees might well be kept there in a locked file. If he has no assigned room, the records may be kept in a central office with interviewing rooms, desks, and chairs for convenient use of the records. In some colleges a messenger service makes it possible for a counselor to have any student's record brought to him.

Fourth, the clerical work required of teachers gives rise to dissatisfaction with records; it usurps time that teachers should spend on the creative use of records. There is an important difference between spending time on records as a clerical task and spending time studying the records and writing a descriptive summary of the kind of person a student is and can become.

Comprehensive developmental records may actually save the teacher's time. He is frequently asked to fill in separate blanks concerning a student's special disability and what has been done about it, disciplinary measures and how he has responded to them, and his attitudes toward work, toward classmates, and toward teacher. This information, necessary to the administrator or guidance specialist in dealing with special problems, should be available on the student's developmental record. Moreover, it is much more likely to be accurate if it is obtained before a crisis or emotional disturbance has arisen to distort the student's, parent's, and teacher's perspective.

Fifth, records are often poorly kept; they do not include enough significant information about the causes of behavior to be helpful in the guidance of students.

Sixth, few teachers have had help in using records in parent conferences. Teachers who have learned to use records in successful conferences have been enthusiastic.

All of these unfavorable conditions can be corrected to some extent. When they are, teachers will use cumulative records more effectively than they do at present.

WHAT TO LOOK FOR IN THE SCHOOL RECORDS

Reading records is to a considerable extent an art. Granted the data are accurately and fully recorded, the value of the records depends largely on how skillfully the information is interpreted and synthesized. The teacher should look for relationships, discrepancies, trends, sudden or marked changes in health, achievement, social status, emotional behavior. From the academic record alone, he can see in which subjects the student is doing his best and his poorest work. He can note discrepancies among test results and between test results and teachers' marks. By charting the facts about health, school achievement, family conditions, attendance, extraclass activities, and remunerative work for a given year, the teacher frequently finds explanations of previously incomprehensible behavior. A study of even the bare record of absence, tardiness, and teachers' marks yields a tentative impression of the student, which the teacher can enlarge and clarify through questionnaires, observation, interviews, testing, and home visits.

From a questionnaire filled out with the interest and cooperation of the students, the teacher may learn more about the student's use of English, ability to write correctly and effectively, spelling ability, vocabulary. His attitude toward school in general and certain subjects in particular, toward fellow students, teachers, and himself, and the presence or absence of insight into his own problems may be suggested in a questionnaire and later confirmed by observation and interview. Such a form filled out thoughtfully by the student is a valuable supplement to the cumulative record.

Teachers have found home visits one of the most rewarding sources of understanding of their students. The physical conditions in the home, the social and moral influences of the neighborhood, the tone of parent-child relations, the degree of facilitation of or interference with study and reading—

these and other important facts are learned from home visits. If this kind of detailed information on home visits is filed in the student's record folder, the teacher has only to read and interpret and incorporate it into his enlarging picture of the student.

The most common ways in which teachers go wrong in interpreting records are (1) in making too sweeping generalizations and in drawing inferences not warranted by the data on the records; (2) in failing to note important relationships; (3) in being influenced by their own prejudices or by previous impressions of the individual; and (4) in giving too much weight and authority to test results. Too seldom are records used to raise questions. Too seldom do teachers make the distinction between what the record *shows* and what it *suggests*.

Persons using records would seldom go wrong if they kept three things in mind:

1. That the student is growing and changing. What was true of him last year is not necessarily true this year.
2. That the record represents only a small sampling of his behavior. There is much that is unknown about him.
3. That the record often reflects the bias of the person recording. It may tell more about the person who made the record than it does about the student.

PROTECTING STUDENTS FROM THEIR RECORDS

If records are misinterpreted and misused, they are a menace to the student. For example, two students were refused admission to the college of their choice largely because the admissions officer generalized from an unfavorable anecdotal record that had been included on the record sent to the college. When in doubt, the counselor should not put anything on the developmental record that might prejudice any person who has access to it. If he has confidential material, he may put it in a separate file or indicate on the developmental record where additional information may be obtained on request. Then he can use his judgment as to how much to tell a given person. In some instances, he will *merely* make recommendations instead of giving the basis for the recommendations.

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD FORMS

Inexperienced teacher-counselors may wish to experiment at first by keeping a manila folder for each of their students. Into this folder they put test records, marks in each subject in tabular form, dated anecdotal records and reports of interviews, the physician's summary of the student's health, and other data. They arrange this in orderly sequence in the folder and once or twice a semester study and summarize it. Their summary may take the form of the chart below:

SUMMARY OF DEVELOPMENT

EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS AND RECOMMENDATIONS				
DATE ON WHICH SUMMARY IS MADE	Physical Development	Intellectual Development	Social Development	Emotional Development

Main trends in each phase of development and recommendations are summarized each semester. The recommendations may be underlined to make them stand out. Thus the developmental picture of each student grows and changes year after year. If the person using the record wants more detail on any point, he may turn back to study the source material in the folder. Some of the detailed observations on which the summary is based must be discarded from time to time, so that the folder will not become too bulky.

After a year or two of experimentation, the information that is most useful becomes evident and may be incorporated into a record form. The American Council Cumulative Record ²

² American Council Cumulative Record. The American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

or some other published form may seem to the teachers to have all the items they need in a more convenient form than any they could devise.

They may, however, want a personnel record that bears a still closer relationship to the kinds of guidance they actually have to do. The form on pages 403 to 406, which seems very elaborate, is actually a simpler and more functional form than a compact cumulative record card. It would include one card for identification data and intellectual development (Developmental Record I), one card for physical, social, and emotional development (Record II), and one card for goals and purposes, educational and vocational plans (Record III), which an older student could fill out himself. The same general form would be used for high school and for college.

The three 8½" by 11" cards are kept in a folder or envelope, in which are accumulated the detailed observations, interviews, records of pupils' work, etc., from which the summaries are made. The quantitative data, such as school marks and test results, are recorded directly on the cards. The results of the health examination should be summarized on the card when the doctor makes the examination. The most important trends in the social and emotional development of each pupil should be similarly summarized. The pupil records his goals, purposes, and plans year by year in summarized form. At the end of each year the person who knows the pupil best should try to present an integrated picture of the individual: assets to be further developed, weaknesses that may be overcome, the direction in which he is moving, and recommendations as to the kind of experiences that should be provided for him. After making this summary, the counselor should talk it over with the student and get his views. An extra copy could be easily made and sent from elementary to high school or from high school to college or other schools.

The records for high school and college years would follow a similar pattern, including more detail on work experience, leisure-time activities, educational and vocational plans, and follow-up after leaving school or college. If this combination of factual detail and summary of the most significant trends and recommendations is incorporated as part of the cumulative

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD 1

[illegible]

Teachers' Marks in Each Subject

[illegible]

TESTS	TEST	DATE	PER- CENT- AGE	GRADE	TEST	DATE	PER- CENT- AGE	GRADE
Reading
Scholastic aptitude
Achieve- ment and other tests

*Teachers' Observations of Intellectual Development
and Factors Interfering with It*

GRADE	
I
II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
IX

Summary of Intellectual Development

DATE	TRENDS, DISCREPANCIES, AND INTERPRETATION	NAME OF PERSON MAKING SUMMARY

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD II

DATE	HEALTH SUMMARY OF DOCTOR'S OR NURSE'S RECOMMENDATIONS	NAME OF DOCTOR OR NURSE

GRADE	DATE	TEACHERS' OBSERVATIONS AND ACTION WITH REFERENCE TO DOCTOR'S RECOMMENDATION	NAME OF TEACHER
I
II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
IX

GRADE	SUMMARY OF INTERESTS, SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT, AND PERSONALITY TRENDS AS INDICATED BY STUDENTS' INVENTORIES AND COMPO- SITIONS, TEACHERS' OBSERVATION, AND EXPERIENCES REPORTED RECOMMENDATIONS
I
II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
IX

DEVELOPMENTAL RECORD III

DATE	GOALS AND PURPOSES AS SUGGESTED OR EXPRESSED	VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL PLANS

record, the teacher-counselor will be able to get the information he needs quickly. He need not puzzle over the details unless he wants to clarify or verify some particular point. But the factual details will be there if they are needed for any of the purposes already outlined.

Two problems suggest themselves immediately in connection with carrying out this proposal:

1. Who will make the summaries? Ideally they should be made each year as the culmination of a case conference in which each pupil's record is discussed by the persons who have been in contact with him. Otherwise, the summary should be made by the person serving as the pupil's counselor. These counselors will need time and instruction in order to do this adequately.

2. Will not this system produce a very bulky record? Yes. But if records are to be kept at all, they should be effective enough so that they will be used. It is still more extravagant to spend time and money recording data on record cards that

are little used for the good of the student and the improvement of the curriculum.

CRITERIA FOR STUDENT PERSONNEL RECORDS

There comes a time when every school should appraise its student personnel records. The following are some simple, fundamental criteria for evaluating the school records.

1. *Is the school record card used in the guidance of students?* In some schools records are kept at considerable cost but seldom used in the discovery or the treatment of problems or in helping all the students to attain their fullest development.

2. *Is the record easily read?* Records which are complicated and crowded are discouraging to keep and to interpret.

3. *Does the record show causes and trends?* Single scores on tests, and information concerning social activities, conduct, and other activities for a single year are not nearly so significant as a panorama of repeated tests, observations that show trends, and descriptions that suggest causes.

4. *Do the records include objective, accurate, and concrete measures?* Standardized tests furnish accurate information about certain kinds of ability and achievement. The "incomparability" of teachers' marks is a handicap to a measure which in some ways might be superior to standardized tests.

5. *Do the records show interrelations between background, interests, and abilities?* The relationships between intelligence, academic achievement, recreational and vocational interests, home background, and other factors can be seen much more clearly when this information is periodically synthesized in chart or descriptive form.

6. *Can the record be reproduced quickly and cheaply?* When all the information about an individual is collected on a single card, it is necessary that duplicates of this card be available to the various persons who are concerned in the guidance of students. Copying records is tedious and time-consuming. Photostating is not too costly to be used much more widely than it is at present. In a small institution, a single record may be made accessible to all the officers of the school who work with individual students. In a large institution,

duplicate records are essential in order to prevent delay and waste of time in obtaining the information.

In conclusion, it should be re-emphasized that the teacher should not feel responsible for securing items of information in all the areas included in a complete case study. An attempt on the part of a teacher to obtain intimate details about the ancestors, parent relationships, home conditions, or the early infancy of the child might be resented, in many communities, as an intrusion upon privacy and as unjustifiable curiosity. It is important, however, for the teacher to be cognizant and make note of the kinds of data that may prove to be significant. When, in the guidance of an individual, he feels the need for certain kinds of information, he should consider adding such items to the developmental record.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Developmental records grow as the understanding of each student grows. This understanding of his potential and functioning mental abilities, of his achievement and satisfaction in different fields, of his probable ability to learn new things, of his health and physical fitness, and of his ability to live successfully with himself and others is the keystone of guidance. Without this knowledge, it is impossible for the student to choose the kind of education that will be most effective in preparing him for his role as worker and citizen.

The developmental record may take a number of forms. The best is a combination of facts and descriptions, of details and summary, of quantitative and qualitative information. This combination enables the teacher to obtain the main developmental trends quickly and to find supporting details, if he needs them.

If the student is to grow in his ability to appraise himself, he should have practice in the process of appraisal. Some of the most valuable information in the record folder will be supplied by the student through questionnaires, autobiographies, and samples or records of his work. In conference with his counselor, he may learn to interpret test results and to study his record objectively with the questions in mind: What does

the record tell me about what I can do best and what I can become? What are my good points and my limitations? What conditions are interfering with the realization of my best self? On the positive abilities indicated by the developmental record, he will build his educational and vocational plans.

13

The Case Study and Case Conference

*"This method . . . is the most comprehensive of all, and lies closest to the initial starting point of common sense. It provides a framework within which the psychologist can place all his observations gathered by other methods; it is his final affirmation of the individuality and uniqueness of every personality. It is a completely synthetic method, the only one that is spacious enough to embrace all assembled facts. Unskillfully used, it becomes a meaningless chronology, or a confusion of fact and fiction, or guesswork and misinterpretation. Properly used, it is the most revealing method of all."*¹

THE CASE STUDY

The developmental record is an abbreviated case study kept for all students. The case study is a more comprehensive, unified study of a person. Its aim is to provide a background for understanding why he behaves as he does. Both attempt to interpret and synthesize the facts and impressions collected about individuals. By making even a few intensive case studies the teacher gains a better understanding of other students and of the complexity of factors that may influence an individual's

¹ Gordon Allport, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*, p. 390. Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

behavior. He also understands better the significance of the case studies made by specialists with whom he works.

The *case history* is a comprehensive factual account of the individual's development. The *case study*, as its name implies, includes interpretation and integration of the case history data and recommendations based on this study. It is much easier to write a case history than to make a case study. In making case studies teachers should have the opportunity of working closely with trained case workers. Making a case study is more like painting a picture than like putting together a jigsaw puzzle.

The counselor often has to decide which students he can help most with the time and facilities available. The following factors are helpful in deciding whether circumstances are favorable for the working out of a solution:

The age of the individual

The duration of the difficulty (How far back does it go?)

The extent to which physical factors in the situation can be changed

The extent to which factors in the home, neighborhood, and school that are causing the difficulty are modifiable

The insight the person brings to his problem

The cooperation that can be secured from parents, teachers, and other people

Case studies vary greatly in length. Some are only several paragraphs in length; others, like the one reported in this chapter, may run up to many pages. The case study should be long enough to be helpful to the individual.

The case study usually begins with the statement of a problem—the individual does not see his way clear to realizing his best potentialities. This statement may be made on the basis of the teacher-counselor's observation; or by another teacher, a member of the family, or another person by whom the case is referred; or by the student himself, if he comes voluntarily to the counselor. In the first interview the needs of the individual, the nature of the problem, and his expectations of the counseling process should become clearer. The counselor listens most of the time but may explain the kind

of counseling service he can offer. This first interview is followed by others, and by testing periods if the need for tests becomes evident. Home visits and a case conference may also be included in the course of making the case study. A detailed record is made of each contact and is fastened in the case study folder in chronological sequence. When the counselor feels the need for a summary, he synthesizes the information collected up to that point under the following headings:

Age, sex, grade in school, race or nationality

First impression of the individual: personal appearance, size, attitude, dress, manner

Problem as stated by the individual or by person referring him for a case study

Contacts with individual or with persons related to him: interviews, testing periods, opportunities for observation in natural situations

Summary of test results, physical examination, and reports from other agencies

Interpretation and synthesis: most significant attitudes, behavior, symptoms, and the meaning of these to the individual; important causative forces—motives and environmental conditions—contributing to the kind of development described

Plans for the future: reasons for and evaluation of them

The Case Study of a High School Pupil. This actual case study of a tenth-grade girl follows the traditional case study form. To help this girl, an unusual amount of information about the family background seemed to be necessary.

Statement of the problem. Helen was referred by her older sister, Rose, who had formerly been in the teacher-counselor's class. Rose feared that Helen might be affected by the emotional situation in the home. She is also worried because Helen has emotional outbursts when she can't have her own way. Rose said that Helen "goes all to pieces when she meets a difficult situation."

First two interviews with Helen's sister. Rose gave details of the family background in this interview. Being a public health nurse, she gave the information for a better and more complete social history than the teacher-counselor could have obtained by questioning.

The father's parents were born in Russia and lived there until

he brought them to this country when they were "quite old." They were supported by their children until they died at about seventy years of age. There were eleven children, of whom the father was the third. They were generous and devoted to each other.

Helen's father came to America when he was about twenty-three. He boarded with Helen's mother's family and worked in their bakery shop. Seven years later, when he was thirty, he married Helen's mother, having "waited for her for six years." He helped all of his brothers and sisters to come to America. Rose described her father as having a combination of admirable qualities. His wife resented his devotion to his relatives and his generosity to other people. One day when he was fifty-five years old, his coat caught in the machinery of his factory and he was drawn into the machine and killed. Rose said the family think he might have committed suicide. He was found by the oldest son and Rose.

There was much intermarriage in the father's family, several marrying first cousins. Rose said, "A second cousin has been ill enough to be confined in a mental hospital for a short time and one of father's nieces and one of his sisters have had occasional mental depressions but not severe enough to be confined to a hospital."

Helen's maternal grandmother was born in Russia and was left "on her own" at eight years of age. She later divorced her first husband and married again. About sixteen years after her marriage she came to America alone and started a bakery. A year later she sent for her husband and the four children—two of her own and two stepchildren. She was a small, determined person with a tremendous amount of energy. Rose said, "She was suspicious of everyone—nobody was going to put anything over on her." The grandmother was the cleverest of the entire family.

The grandfather was very religious and spent most of his time reading. He could not make money and would take money out of the family savings to give to poor and needy people. Rose's mother used to pray as a young girl, "Oh, God, don't let me marry a man like my father."

After the death of her husband Helen's mother went to visit one of her brothers-in-law to see about going into business. She decided to return to her previous home and since then has been running a small store.

Rose said people seldom came to see them. Her father found his recreation everywhere: in a discussion of politics or religion, a festival, a party. *The mother and father often quarreled. Terrible scenes occurred.* Rose said, "My father threatened to shoot himself. We children stood around frightened, horrified, weeping. He told me once that he tried to commit suicide by drowning." After his death a will was found, which had been made a few days before his accident.

her mother and less so in giving the details of her father's history. She tended to paint a glowing picture of him and tended to justify her father and blame her mother for their difficulties. She was conscious of this tendency. She gave the facts about her brothers and sisters without any hesitancy, but, when she came to her own position in the family, she said in a low voice, "I don't want to talk about myself." She twisted her wedding ring and took it off and on constantly during the interview. She apologized for taking so much time.

First interview with Helen. The conversation began with Helen telling about her interests and recreation. She said she has always liked to play with boys and girls. She enjoyed roller-skating on the street with them. However, she no longer does that because she says the old ladies on the street call her a "tomboy." She says that now when the boys say "Hello" to her on the street, she doesn't stop to talk with them, but she does when she meets them in school. Her mother encourages her to be friendly with the boys, but she does not allow her to go to the movies with them alone. She has been glad to have her go to evening parties and to have one of the boys escort her home. She enjoys reading and likes to study. If she has time, she enjoys going for a walk with her girl friends. She loves to dance and enjoys especially the evenings when she and her friends gather in someone's house to dance to the victrola. She likes to help her mother in the store but is rather irritated with the women who are not interested in her opinion because they think she is just a child.

Last summer her sister Annie came from her home in North Carolina to visit and took her back with her to enter a YWCA camp there for the entire summer. Helen liked camp immensely and learned to live with girls. She said, "At camp you really get to know them. My girl friend here—I like and we have good times together, but I don't see her when she gets up in the morning. I don't know her as you get to know persons at camp." She wasn't a bit homesick at camp, nor when she visited her sister three years before. "I am the only one of the children whom my mother has let go away from home. I guess she decided to try a different method on me." Helen liked all of the camp activities and hopes she can go back there again. She has a medal that she won at school for participation in athletics. She would like to take dancing lessons and is hoping that her mother will allow her to. She likes tennis, social dancing, and hiking or strolling. She has spent a great deal of her time in social groups.

Helen says she has always been interested in people. On the subway she studies them and wonders what makes them the way they are. She gave a speech in school last year, stating her intention to become a psychologist.

own breakfast in the morning and leaves home before either her mother or sister are up. She returns from school, intending to study, and finds that Polly has planned housework for her to do. This generally causes an argument. She studies before and after dinner until 8:30. She does not have time for recreation during the week but waits until Saturday and Sunday. Her mother has very little time for recreation because the store is kept open until nine o'clock every night. Occasionally she goes to the movies.

Reports from teachers. Her marks for the freshman year were as follows (70 per cent is the passing mark):

	<i>First Semester Per Cent</i>	<i>Second Semester Per Cent</i>
French	75	75
English	79	80
Social Science	95	95
Algebra	80	
Biology	86	80

The academic standing of this school is good but not exceptionally high. Her favorite teacher, the English teacher, said, "Helen is making grades of 85 to 90 in English this semester. She is alert, interested in class and very enthusiastic. She does outside reading in addition to the requirements. At present she is making an English notebook for which she gets no credit. She is the first in the class to take up suggestions for extra work and does it beautifully. She seems more mature than her classmates. She has many friends, both boys and girls, and knows practically everyone in her class. She doesn't seem to be working under strain, although she is very ambitious. She has a charming personality and a great deal of poise."

Helen works every afternoon in the attendance office of the school. For this service she received a "blue merit," which has no value as school credit but is highly prized by the pupils. She says she likes to stay after school and help the teachers.

Home visit. At the cordial invitation of both Helen and Rose, the teacher-counselor visited the home and had dinner with the family. The four rooms were scantily but substantially furnished, suggesting better times. For example, a large silver tray and tea service were on top of the icebox in the kitchen. While the girls prepared dinner the mother poured out her version of the case history, which agreed essentially with Rose's report. She seemed glad of a chance to tell her troubles. The young people were co-operative and seemed kind and considerate of one another. Stephen, who had stopped unexpectedly for supper, remarked that the family must be on their good behavior; that it must be the good influence of the visitor, for he had never known his family to

be so genial. During the conversation, the teacher-counselor thought that the mother began to see a relationship between her irritation with her husband and her earlier dislike of similar behavior in her father. She also saw more clearly Helen's need to be left alone more and encouraged to work out her problems independently. In talking to Polly, the teacher-counselor gave her the feeling that she was doing important work and was of real worth to the family. Thus, casually, as each member of the family indicated readiness for help, the teacher-counselor offered suggestions for their consideration when they seemed to have reached the limit of their own resources.

Helen's visit to the nursery school. At the teacher-counselor's suggestion, Helen visited a near-by nursery school and observed a child being tested. Afterward she learned about the various types of work psychologists do and the value of having experience with children before training as a psychologist.

Psychological tests. It was possible for the teacher-counselor to obtain the service of a psychologist in making a thorough study of the girl's mental functioning. At this time Helen was 15 years and three months old. The test results are noted below.

	Score	Mental Age	IQ Equivalent
Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Examination	30	13 yrs. 7 mos.	
Terman Group Test of Mental Ability	128	15 yrs. 7 mos.	102
Stanford Binet		14 yrs. 10 mos.	106
Porteus Maze		14 yrs.	

Helen was consistently poor in arithmetic and perception of form. Her emotional reaction to all tests was good; she was excited but not worried and showed no unusual depression at failure or signs of discouragement.

Health examination. A thorough health examination showed Helen to be in good physical condition. Although she was underweight, according to the height-weight tables, the physician decided that nothing special need be done about it because (1) she was slight in body build (2) she had been gaining weight for a number of months, and (3) she had begun to take responsibility herself for eating a more adequate diet.

Interpretation and synthesis. The report of the psychologist came as a surprise to the teacher-counselor, who had obtained the impression that Helen's IQ was considerably higher than 106. In trying to analyze her estimate of intelligence, the teacher-counselor

realized that she was impressed by Helen's conversational ability and maturity of observation and by her good school achievement. Part of the conversational ability was the result of a pleasing, interested, and vivacious manner. Part of the high school achievement could be attributed to the favorable impression she made on teachers and the large amount of time and effort she spent on her school work. The tests indicated that, despite her apparently high social intelligence, she may not have the kind of mental ability necessary to succeed in the college and graduate work required in preparing for a position as psychologist. If the academic requirements were to become more severe than they are at present, could she meet them without too much strain? Does she have a reserve of study time and mental ability to meet additional scholastic demands? If not, will this additional strain and pressure be too great for her emotional reserves? The family history suggests emotional instability. Her father seemed to have suicidal tendencies; two members of her family had been hospitalized for manic-depressive psychosis; the older sister, Rose, gave a definite impression of maladjustment. Although Helen has shown unusual insight into her own behavior and has adjusted to a difficult family situation very well, it might be unwise to subject her to too great academic difficulty. While it would be good for her to go away to college away from the home atmosphere, it would be bad for her to fail.

She might consider a substitute vocational goal: to attend a junior college for two years and prepare for a position as secretary to a psychologist or in a social work agency or clinic. Her interests in athletics, in people, and in psychology would be utilized in work as assistant recreational director or physical education teacher. She would enjoy a job as receptionist for summers or on a part-time basis while she was continuing her education. The family's limited financial resources would make it necessary for her to obtain a scholarship or do part-time work or take a full-time job to save enough money to finance a year or two of education. She should take all these factors into consideration in making her educational plans.

During the process of making this case study, it became evident, first, that Helen's problem was one of educational and vocational planning more than of emotional instability, and, second, that it was the older sister, Rose, who was in need of psychotherapy. By learning so much about the family background in this case and comparing Helen's behavior at home with her unusually good response to difficulty in the test situation and with her objectivity and insight in the interviews, the teacher-counselor was convinced that the reported home

behavior was not pathological but quite normal under the circumstances. It was possible for the teacher-counselor, through the school guidance specialist, to refer the older sister to a competent psychiatric social worker who helped her to see her husband's point of view and accept him rather than try to make him over.

Making this one intensive case study gave the teacher-counselor an increased appreciation of the complex family relations with which many of her students have to deal. It also gave her a better understanding of Helen. Consequently she was able to help her make suitable and realistic educational and vocational plans.

The therapeutic value of this case study is less obvious. Helen found it helpful to explain her behavior to a genuinely sympathetic and objective listener; thus the childishness of her temper tantrums and crying to get what she wanted became more evident to her. The process of rethinking her educational and vocational plans and of making personal decisions probably became clearer to her. Other members of the family likewise received help: Polly's sense of worth and her satisfaction in her household tasks were increased; the mother released some of her tension in the long, uninterrupted opportunity to "talk it out"; Rose saw her need for help and made connections with a psychiatric social worker. Although making this case study was time-consuming, the time spent may be justified on several grounds: the teacher-counselor increased her understanding of human behavior and was thereby better able to guide other students; Helen was helped to adjust to her difficult family situation and to plan more intelligently for the future; the family were helped a little to accept themselves and one another.

Common Faults in Interpreting Case Data. Some of the most common faults in interpreting case studies are the following:

1. The teacher-counselor infers too much from the information available and arrives at a judgment or generalization without sufficient basis for it; he tends to judge the person rather than to understand him.
2. He tends to oversimplify behavior. Some people look primarily for external causes of a difficulty. They believe a person

would not be a criminal if he had a nice tiled bathroom and good food. Some people look primarily for hereditary causes. They seek a history of hereditary nervous instability. Some look for physical causes. Some look to companions as the cause of difficulty. Some believe troubles arise only in the mind of the individual—that there is hidden somewhere within the individual a complete history of his character and personality and that the trick is to secure this history by breaking down barriers and inhibitions. As a matter of fact, all these factors have some influence on an individual. Each may enter to a certain degree into every case, but none acts singly.

3. He neglects information that gives insight into the development of parents' attitudes and drives that are often the most important factors influencing the child's choices and behavior.

4. He fails to recognize the difficulty of habit revision and thinks that a bit of advice is all that is necessary; he assumes that parents can change their behavior toward their children if they are merely told to do so. He tends to blame the parents and makes them feel guilty instead of recognizing that they need sympathetic help in working out their own problems. Many cases of student difficulty are family-centered, and progress cannot be made until changes in family attitude and behavior are effected.

5. He fails to recognize the environmental forces—the culture, physical conditions, home background and relations—that are influencing the individual in his family and in his social groups.

6. He needs more background for interpreting the facts collected; for example, more understanding of the meaning of an IQ, its relation to school success, to vocations, to personality trends, to delinquency.

7. He needs to avoid being overinfluenced by first impressions and to be more receptive to new ideas, to leads and clues that the individual gives.

Relation of Case Studies to Interviews. There are some persons who seem to think that case histories and cumulative records may be unnecessary or even detrimental in counseling. For several reasons it would be unfortunate if this point of view

became widespread. First, the case history, including the social and cultural as well as the psychological forces that have been, and are, influencing the individual, is necessary for a complete and significant diagnosis. Second, an understanding of these forces and life patterns is essential especially with individuals who feel inadequate to meet life's problems. Without knowing their limitations, the counselor may allow them to become involved in situations in which their deficiencies become still more evident. Third, the argument that, having given case history data to the counselor, the individual may then shift responsibility for the counseling process to the interviewer, does not hold if this information is collected by another person. By having developmental records and case histories at hand, the counselor has the advantage of knowing about the individual without having to use interview time to get this basic information. Moreover, if environmental changes are to be made, the student may accept them more readily if he knows they have been recommended on the basis of thorough knowledge. While recognizing the value of the student's active participation in the process of self-appraisal and adjustment, the counselor should not neglect other resources for helping him to understand himself.

Trends in Case Study Procedures. There are certain trends in the making of case studies that will lead to improvement in work with individuals. These trends may be summarized as follows:

① To start with the situation as the individual himself sees it and follow the leads he gives. This approach is different from the old systematic taking of case histories beginning with paternal and maternal history. In the end, the important areas will have been explored, but the emphasis will have been on those that seem to be most closely related to the particular case. In the case reported on pages 412 to 419, the family background seemed most significantly related to the girl's problem and was therefore explored first. Practice today emphasizes positive factors in the present more than the comprehensive history of the past.

② To pay more attention to attitudes and relationships and the meaning of the behavior to the person.

(3) To make the case study family- or even community-centered rather than individual-centered.

(4) To include direct quotations from autobiographies and interviews. For example, direct quotations of a father's statements about his son and a relative's remarks concerning the relationship between father and son, and a description of the observed behavior of father and son in certain situations give a much more valuable basis for understanding the case than a generalization about the father's attitudes.

(5) To include responses of the individual in experimental situations that permit comparison of his responses with those of other individuals.

(6) To study "normal" individuals as well as those who present serious problems.

(7) To include only "dynamic material" which helps to explain why a person believes as he does.

Sources of Case Study Data. In general, in making a case study, it is better to follow leads that the individual gives than to adhere to an outline for making case studies. The outline, however, is useful in acquainting the inexperienced worker with kinds of information that might be significant. Sometimes, as in the case reported in this chapter, the family history is of prime importance; in other cases, a study of the individual's present problems of adjustment may be more immediately useful.

The chief sources of information concerning a case are:

School records, which usually give address, date of birth, name of parents, occupation and nationality of parents, academic subjects, and student's marks.

Interviews with student (including all the informal contacts between teacher and student as they live and talk with each other every day).

Interviews with parents, teachers, and other people who know the individual.

Observation and interviews in the home.

Observation of student in school, on the playground, on the street, in social affairs, and in other school situations.

Results of standardized tests of intelligence, achievement, emotionality, interests, attitudes.

Cumulative records sent from other schools.

Life stories written by the student himself.

Daily schedules kept by the student.

Questionnaires answered by the student.

If social agencies have been assisting the person or his family, the case should be cleared through the Social Service Exchange.

Scope of Case Study Data. Although an outline suggesting the kinds of information that are often significant in a case is helpful, the outline should never be followed in a stereotyped manner. The details here are given merely to suggest conditions that may help to explain behavior in individual cases. The subject should be encouraged to talk freely so that his feelings and special concerns, significant abilities and disabilities, and trends peculiar to the case may be understood. An analysis of a large number of case studies and records used in psychological and psychiatric clinics shows that the information may be classified under twelve fields of inquiry:²

Information on the present problem. In addition to the routine identification and registration data, already available to advisers in educational institutions, a picture of the present problem should be secured. It is necessary to know the problem as it appears to the student himself as well as the way it appears to the person who recognized and referred the problem. The methods previously used in treating the problem, the satisfactions the student is getting from his particular behavior, and the emotional reactions of others to the behavior are important items of information. A student's own analysis of his difficulty is enlightening. The teacher is in a strategic position to secure information relating to the individual's school adjustment.

Background of personalities in the family. Certain facts regarding the grandfathers, grandmothers, father and mother, brothers and sisters are sometimes extremely significant. Since the contribution of each grandparent to the inheritance of the child is, according to Galton, only one fourth that contributed by each parent, and since the social and psychological

² The author is indebted to Mrs. Percival M. Symonds' analysis of case record forms for many of the details included in the following pages.

influence of the parents is usually greater than that of the grandparents, it is more important, in the majority of cases, to obtain information concerning the parents than concerning the grandparents. The grandparents may exert a direct influence on the case or they may have influenced the parents' attitudes and behavior. The occupation of the grandparents gives one indication of the intellectual and social status of the family. Nationality also colors the customs, ideals, and social standards in the home; and these customs or standards may be the most important factors in a child's development. All this information cannot be obtained for all students, but it is possible and valuable to know at least the educational background and occupation of their parents.

1. *Health:* The item regarding the health of the student's ancestors most frequently included in a case study is the incidence of the following conditions: circulatory and kidney diseases, tuberculosis, gonorrhea, syphilis, feeble-mindedness, nervous breakdowns or insanity, depression, suicide, alcoholism, periodic headaches, and use of drugs. Two diseases—syphilis and gonorrhea—may be transmitted to the offspring before birth. Feeble-mindedness and several types of insanity are thought to be heritable. The exact type of mental disorder should be learned if possible, since different types of mental disorders affect the offspring differently.

Tuberculosis is not transmitted to the offspring in the germ plasm. But the inheritance of a bodily structure unusually susceptible to tuberculosis and the danger of infection after birth in a tubercular household must be considered.

Similarly, nervous instability and alcoholism and drug addiction in parents and grandparents may have a serious influence on home conditions. A history of nervous instability in the family may contribute to parent-child relations that are producing maladjustment in the student. Poor health of the parents may be causing an underlying irritability that is a source of daily conflict.

Expert interpretation of this information about family background is necessary. The one thing the counselor should avoid is jumping to hasty conclusions on the basis of information on family background.

2. *Personal characteristics:* Items sometimes included in case studies are unusual physical characteristics; intelligence; moods; special interests and abilities; attitudes toward self, family, social group, occupation, and sex; methods of work; acceptance or avoidance of responsibility; adaptability; and peculiarities of behavior. Persistent mental mechanisms acquired in the parents' early childhood frequently interfere with the development of their children's personality. For example, one father who had always occupied the center of the stage as a child continued to do so after he married, and interfered with his children's development by his craving for power and insistence upon having absolute authority. Other parents infect the family atmosphere with their feelings of inferiority.

Failure on the part of parents to achieve adult maturity may be a cause of their children's maladjustment. One woman who had been brought up by parents who encouraged her dependence on them resisted the idea of motherhood, refused its responsibilities, and was displaced in her husband's affection by her own child.

Clashes sometimes occur between parents and children of opposite dispositions and points of view. Some parents are not "oriented in the modern world." They are "set in their ways." They fail to get their children's point of view and lose perspective, so that they cannot distinguish between major and minor values. They do not realize that adolescents have a very strong loyalty toward the opinions and attitudes of friends of their own age.

A court record or other indication of criminality, social antagonism, or delinquency may have a bearing in certain cases. The stigma attached to a parent who has been in prison is too frequently visited upon the child.

3. *Nationality, citizenship status, religion:* The nationality, citizenship status, and religion of the parents and grandparents and their attitudes toward these factors explain certain adolescent problems. Conflicts arise when the traditions of foreign-born parents clash with the normal desires of young people growing up in the new land. For example, the strict supervision and severe discipline of an Italian parent

who refused to allow his adolescent daughter to associate with boys of her own age resulted in serious difficulty and rebellion.

4. *Educational history:* The educational history of the child's ancestors may be indicative of their intelligence and interests and tells much about the cultural background in which the child grew up. The attitude of parents toward education and toward educated people is significant, especially in the case of conflict between the parent and child regarding educational questions. In some cases, the parent is ambitious for the child to receive an education beyond his capacities; in other cases, the parent opposes the child's desire to obtain an education appropriate for him.

5. *Economic and social status:* Knowledge of the economic and social status of both grandparents and parents throws light on many problems. A sudden change of economic status is especially significant. Unemployment of parents precipitates problems. Economic insecurity operates as a threat to every member of the family. Social maladjustment in school or college may be traced in part to the social and economic background of the student's family.

6. *Occupations:* The occupations of the parents and grandparents are perhaps the best single indications of the child's social and economic background. Frequent changes in occupation and the nature of these changes, the suitability of the work to the capacity of the individual and its power of satisfying him and other members of the family are factors of importance in particular cases. The influence of the vocational history of a parent upon the parent-child relationship is illustrated by the case of a father who, having to go to work at the age of fourteen, acquired ideals of application to work that resulted in his insisting that his fourteen-year-old son "improve every shining minute."

7. *Social activities:* Knowledge of the social activities of the parents, their other daily habits of living, their attitudes toward society, and their interest in civic movements is decidedly relevant to the understanding of their children. Parents who meet people frankly and freely, have many friends, participate in group affairs, and are at ease in making social

contacts provide an entirely different environment for the child from that supplied by parents who are diffident and bashful, reticent, suspicious, or seclusive. The child who has been accustomed to meet strangers freely, entertain guests, and adjust himself to many different personalities is not likely to have difficulty in adjusting to the wider social responsibilities of adolescence and to the boarding school or college situation.

The presence of extraneous persons in the home—boarders, relatives, and dependents—may be involved in problem cases. Their influence on the individual being studied, his attitudes toward them, and their inability or unwillingness to cooperate in carrying out recommendations may help to explain his behavior.

8. *Atmosphere of parents' homes:* The atmosphere of the parents' homes and their early childhood experiences often throw light on their behavior toward their children. But parents' behavior cannot be precisely predicted from a knowledge of their past experience. A parent who has suffered deprivation in childhood may treat his own children lavishly, or he may insist upon their acquiring his own early standards of economy. A parent who has been severely disciplined as a child may be very lax with his children, or he may treat them as his parents treated him. Family psychological history often repeats itself.

9. *Marital relationship:* The marital relationship of the parents is an especially significant factor in a child's development. A wide discrepancy between husband and wife in age, economic or social status, religion, or education may cause serious maladjustment of the parents that is in turn reflected in the children. The parents' preparation for marriage, their emotional maturity, independence, economic security, hopes and fears regarding marriage, the extent to which the hopes were fulfilled, and points of agreement and disagreement between them are additional factors affecting the relation of parents to each other and to their children. The adolescent's attitude toward love and marriage is largely built up from his observations of the marital relations in his own family. If these relations have been happy, the child acquires a whole-

some attitude toward love and marriage. If the relationship between his father and mother has been unhappy, the child may never achieve normal heterosexual relationships. Moreover, the parent whose love relationship is unsatisfactory may fix his affection intensely upon the child.

Broken homes may create conflicts in loyalties. They have been found to be associated with maladjustment of high school and college students. In a group of thirty-three delinquent girls studied by Bridges,³ fully 70 per cent came from broken homes. In only ten cases were both parents living at home. Supervision and discipline were often absent, or were spasmodic and inconsistent.

10. *The relationships of the parents to their children:* The relationships of the parents to their children are most important. The equitable distribution of the affection of both parents to all their children and of the children to both parents is basic to good development. Favoritism on the part of parents, unfavorable comparison of one child with another, lack of real affection on the part of parents, and many other attitudes and responses of parents to children may result in problems which persist through high school and college. "A parent is bad who builds up in the child a feeling of inferiority."⁴

A possessive mother or a domineering father makes it difficult for the adolescent to gain independence from the family and sometimes causes an undue feeling of obligation on the part of the child. Occasionally a father who is in a subservient position in business becomes a petty tyrant in the home. To quote Miriam Van Waters again: "A parent is bad who will not let a child grow up, who does all the talking, makes all the decisions, and meets all the issues."⁵

Some of the other attitudes on the part of parents which have been found to wreck children most seriously are distrust or lack of confidence in the child, a faulty characterization of him, lack of sympathy and understanding, failure to see the

³ J. W. Bridges, "A Study of a Group of Delinquent Girls," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 31:187-201, June, 1927.

⁴ Miriam Van Waters, "Nineteen Ways of Being a Bad Parent," *Survey Graphic*, 57:435, January, 1927.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 439.

child's possibilities, dogmatism, overindulgence, nagging, lack of sense of humor, and constant interference with the child's activities.

11. *Method of discipline:* The method of discipline used in the home is a significant factor in many school problems. Discipline may take any of the following forms: severe corporal punishment, scolding, contrasting the child's behavior or achievement with that of others, depriving him of privileges, bribing, threatening, rewarding, appealing to his affection or reason, and allowing him to suffer the natural consequences of his acts. Sometimes attempts on the part of parents to build habits of obedience result in creating rebellion. Parents who "wobble and squabble" regarding their policy of treating a child are likely to cause a feeling of insecurity on the part of the child. The reasonableness of requests, the amount of freedom and responsibility allowed, the child's reaction to the home methods of discipline, and the extent to which he participates in formulating and carrying out family policies and plans are parts of the total home situation that should be ascertained, if possible.

12. *Variations in the child's behavior:* Differences between the child's behavior in the home and his behavior outside the home give indications of whether the difficulty is primarily within the individual or primarily in the environment. For example, one high school girl referred to a clinic by an older brother was found to be making an unusually good adjustment to the maladjusted people with whom she had to deal in her own home.

13. *Special accidents or events:* Special accidents or events that have occurred in the family, such as a suicide, disabling injury, or loss of money, may color the entire atmosphere of the family.

14. *Factors in the family routine:* Factors in the family routine may cause or accentuate conflicts on the part of the child. Tension between parent and child is frequently increased by the parent's being at home all the time unemployed or working in the same building in which he lives and having few friends and interests outside the home. On the other hand, too little supervision, as sometimes results when both

parents go out to work or are constantly attending social affairs, may be equally detrimental.

15. *Brothers and sisters:* Always significant is a study of the student's brothers and sisters, their relationship to him, and the parents' attitude toward each of the children. In one situation, the younger brother received all the praise and favors that were bestowed by the parents, "tattled" on the older brother, enjoyed seeing him punished, and naturally won his wholehearted hatred. The interests, education, behavior difficulties, and activities of older brothers and sisters influence those of the younger children. The achievement of a brilliant older brother or sister being set as a goal for a less gifted child is in some cases the chief explanation of a serious school maladjustment. For example, a high school girl of average intelligence suddenly began to fail in all her school work. Her parents were expecting her to succeed along the same lines that an older, more gifted daughter had been following. The older daughter had died; the younger daughter knew the parents were expecting her to fulfill their ambitions for the older sister. She found that what was expected of her was beyond her capacity and gave up entirely. When the parents realized that they were demanding the impossible and adjusted their expectations to the younger daughter's ability, a happy adjustment was made. There is danger of maladjustment if the goals placed before children are on the one hand too remote and difficult, or on the other hand too easy.

It is important to know the position and status in the family of the individual being studied. An older child is sometimes overtaxed with the care of younger brothers and sisters and may lack the cultural opportunities of his younger siblings. The only child of mature parents and the adopted child also may have problems peculiar to their places in the family.

Although the majority of facts about the family background of a student can best be obtained by a trained social case worker, the teacher is often in a position to secure a number of important items mentioned in the preceding pages from parents or grandparents who come to the school to see

about their Jimmy. Additional information about the economic and social conditions in the home is often given to teachers spontaneously by the students. Teachers learn much about the educational background of the parents and their attitudes toward education when they discuss with students their future educational and vocational plans. Significant accidents and events that have occurred in the family are frequently confided by students to teachers whom they trust. Teachers occasionally have important information concerning the subject's brothers and sisters whom they have previously taught. A home visit, of course, reveals to the teacher a great many more details regarding his students' family background.

Home and neighborhood environment. Many factors in the home and neighborhood environment are important in the treatment of a case as well as in its diagnosis. The spirit of the neighborhood, the facilities for wholesome recreation, the existence of gangs, pool rooms, dance halls, and other undesirable features are stimuli that tend to evoke certain responses on the part of the individual. The type of home—whether it tends toward comfort and healthfulness or toward squalor and unhealthfulness—is an environmental factor which must be considered. The number and kinds of books, magazines, and daily papers are cultural resources of the home that are worth noting. Deficiencies in cultural background are sometimes keenly felt when the adolescent goes away to boarding school or college.

The observing teacher will note desirable and undesirable features of the school neighborhood, even though he himself lives in another section of the town or city. One teacher, at the beginning of the term, made it a practice to drive past the homes of all the pupils in her homeroom group to get an idea of the home and neighborhood of each pupil. Another made a survey of recreational facilities.

1. *Economic conditions:* Changes in economic status, sources of income, and indebtedness may be causes of problems primarily financial, but may also contribute to other types of difficulties. The allowances given to children—the amount, the children's responsibility for spending, the fre-

quency with which allowances are given, and by whom they are given—may be especially important factors in achieving adult independence and skill and self-control in budgeting and spending money.

2. *Recreational interests and resources:* Recreational interests and resources in the home often throw light on family relationships. The books, magazines, music, television and radio programs that are enjoyed, the conversation of the family, the vacation plans, the interference with or facilitation of home study—any of these may have a direct bearing on school achievement and study problems.

3. *Individual's attitude toward his home:* Another item to include in the case study is the individual's attitude toward his home, which is indicated both by reluctance to go home and to stay at home, and by his remarks to other people about the comfort, attractiveness, and recreational possibilities of his home. Some juvenile delinquents stay out all night because they can't stand the quarreling at home.

Early development. The history of health habits and physical condition is also needed in the guidance of high school and college students. One high school girl was characterized as dull and lazy by one teacher, was given additional outside work by another teacher, and was treated in an oversympathetic way by a third teacher. None of these teachers knew that the child had suffered from sleeping sickness, which was largely responsible for her behavior in high school.

1. *Conditions of birth and infancy:* Conditions of birth (such as premature or abnormal delivery), feeding habits in infancy, difficulty in weaning, methods used to persuade the child to eat the right kind and amount of food, the age at which the child learned to feed himself, and his use of tea, coffee, or alcoholic beverages are significant from both a physical and a psychological standpoint. In some of these early conditions may be the genesis of habits of crying, irritability, and a negative reaction to the world. Kenworthy emphasized the psychological importance of the nursing process in the following paragraph:

If one had to choose the most important fact of the child's experience and the one that, if improperly handled, could make for

more emotional maladjustment than any other at this period of the child's life, one would stress the need for proper handling of the nursing situation.*

A history of enuresis frequently enters into problems of later childhood.

2. *Early health history:* Light may be thrown on the present health status by a physician's report and interpretation of the effect of operations, serious accidents, and past diseases, such as measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, whooping cough, mumps, convulsions, fainting spells, and spasms, chorea, otitis, infantile paralysis, encephalitis, and meningitis. Any of these conditions may have had detrimental physical and psychological consequences which in turn often affect a child's social relations.

3. *Psychological development:* In addition to the physical development, facts about the psychological development of the individual are important. The age of talking may indicate mental retardation or acceleration. In general, the dull child learns to talk later than the bright child, but there are so many other factors involved in learning to talk that the assumption should not be made that because a child does not begin to talk until the second or third year, he is necessarily a dull child.[†] The attitude of the parents toward the child—whether the child is treated with affection or indifference, whether every desire is fulfilled almost before it is expressed, whether the child occupies the center of the stage on all occasions or is told that "children should be seen and not heard"—may have a direct bearing on certain later problems.

Through conversation with parents who visit the school, with parents in their own homes, with brothers and sisters, and with the subject himself, teachers may frequently obtain important facts concerning the developmental history of a student.

4. *Intelligence:* In educational and vocational guidance it is necessary to have accurate information concerning the student's scholastic aptitude. This is best secured by means of

* Marion E. Kenworthy, "Social Maladjustments (Emotional) in the Intellectually Normal," *Mental Hygiene*, 7:839, October, 1930.

† Ruth Strang, *An Introduction to Child Study* (Third Edition), pp. 62-63. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931.

standardized intelligence tests administered by a trained person. On the high school and college levels several different types of examination should be used. No important decision should be made on the basis of the results of a single examination. From mental tests are secured the mental age, intelligence in relation to chronological age (intelligence quotient), some idea of the mental processes and emotional reactions of the individual as evidenced by his responses while taking the test, ability on different parts of the test—in arithmetic, vocabulary, general information, judgment, reasoning—types of errors made, and the individual's position in relation to his class and to the general population of the same chronological age. (See pages 359-362.)

Knowing the intellectual scope of students is essential in helping them to achieve up to their capacity and to avoid undue worry, lack of self-confidence, or feelings of inferiority. One of the first questions a teacher asks when dealing with a problem of failure is: "Is the work suited to the intellectual capacity of the student?" His treatment of the individual must depend partly on the answer to this question.

Ideally, the teacher should be given this information concerning the intelligence of a student by trained psychologists. People's judgments of the intelligence of children on the basis of their general appearance and facial expression have been shown to be inaccurate. However, accurate observation of the way an individual functions in school and other life situations should supplement test results.

Academic achievement. The cumulative school records of marks, attendance, failures, length of time spent in each grade, transfers, and honors are enlightening. They show the trend of academic achievement, fluctuations at different stages of development, and variations in different subjects.

Although the school records will furnish information concerning the academic marks of students, the teacher must be relied upon to contribute important details concerning the student's attitude toward his work and his habits of study.

1. *Standardized tests:* Standardized tests of achievement show a student's position in relation to a larger group. As in the case of intelligence tests, an idea of the mental processes

required in the tests, emotional reactions to difficulty, and specific strengths and weaknesses in each subject may be obtained. The results of standardized tests should be supplemented by any evidence of a student's mastery of kinds of information not acquired in the average school or of his common sense in dealing with practical situations (see pages 362-365).

2. *Attitudes of students:* Fully as important as the end results represented by the teacher's marks and the scores on tests are a student's attitudes toward the subjects and the means by which he achieved these results—whether by working hard in certain courses, by incidental contacts with people interested in the fields of study, by leisure reading and travel, or in other ways. Shifting from one type of school to another, as, for example, from a church school to a public school, or from a public school to a fashionable private school, may be the chief cause of difficulty in a particular case.

The student's early and present attitude toward school, toward his teachers, toward certain subjects, toward failure; his estimate of his own ability (one high school girl classed herself as an M.D., which she announced meant "mentally deficient"); his reasons for his failure; his attitude toward praise and blame; his educational plans—all throw light on many academic problems. The teacher's opinion of a student's behavior, explanation of his failure, and attitude toward him may give further insight, as will also the parents' attitude toward a student's failures and successes and toward the school and the teachers. The teacher who has a mental-hygiene rather than a punitive conception of discipline; who regards each student as a unique individual rather than as a representative of a "type"; who sees the possibilities for growth in every individual; who gives credit for achievement where credit is due; and who does not assume that annoying conduct has a moral basis—teachers having these attitudes are likely to be an influence for good.

The attitude of other students toward him and his attitude toward them are also significant. Failure in school work is sometimes due to fear of being thought a "grind."

3. *Study habits:* An analysis of the student's study habits at

home and at school—the amount of time spent in study, the regularity of his study periods, the ratio of distraction to concentration, his reaction to noise and distractions, his preference for studying alone or in a group—is useful in dealing with academic problems.

Health. Since health is basic to satisfactory adjustment, all physical difficulties should be studied and eliminated as early as possible. Sometimes a physical defect or peculiarity has a psychological effect that is more serious than the physical inconvenience.

The thorough physical and medical examination will detect defects of vision, hearing, posture, feet, teeth, speech, nose, and throat; existing diseases such as tuberculosis, syphilis, and heart trouble; and signs of malnutrition, fatigue, anemia, glandular disturbances, lack of neuromuscular coordination, and susceptibility to certain specific diseases, such as diphtheria. The correction of physical impairments may result in the solution of a problem that seemed to be primarily emotional or social. Malnutrition, a serious illness, glandular disturbance, or physical defects are frequently associated with emotional as well as physical problems. For example, being markedly overweight may tend to make a student more sluggish mentally and physically and to isolate him from the activities of his group. On the other hand continued psychological tensions and frustrations may lead to physical illness of various kinds.

On the high school and college levels, as well as earlier, habits of sleeping, eating, elimination, cleanliness, and giving attention to the work or play at hand are major factors in successful adjustment. The student who has formed these fundamental health habits is more likely to have established satisfactory emotional habits than one who has a chaotic daily schedule. A well-ordered physical routine furnishes a stabilizing background.

Special habits and mannerisms, such as stuttering, lisping, using "baby talk," twitching, biting the nails, sucking the thumb, rubbing the nose, biting the lips, showing fear of various objects and people, are easily observed and may be either symptoms or causes of maladjustment.

Although the technical diagnosis of the physical condition of a student must be made by a competent physician, the teacher can contribute to the case study valuable information concerning habits he has observed and the student's cooperation in carrying out the doctor's recommendations.

Sex development. Three areas of inquiry concerning sex development are significant: sex information, pubertal development, and sex relationships.

1. *Sex information:* The most important questions to ask in regard to sex information are: When was sex curiosity first manifested? What kind of sex information has been received? From what source was it received? At what age was it received? How did the individual react toward this information? What is the parents' attitude toward sex and toward giving information concerning sex to their children? What are the individual's present ideas and feelings about sex?

2. *Pubertal development:* The pubertal development of the boy may be ascertained by change of voice, growth of hair on the face and other parts of the body, and nocturnal emissions. The pubertal development of the girl is more readily recognized by the occurrence of menstruation. The character and frequency of the periods and any difficulties should be noted. How the boy or girl was prepared for pubertal changes, his or her attitude, and the parents' attitude toward these changes throw light on adolescent development.

3. *Sex relationships:* Information about a student's reactions to the same sex and to the opposite sex is enlightening. At one extreme, a withdrawal from members of the opposite sex, and at the other extreme, a headlong pursuit of the opposite sex, may be noted. Early love affairs, sex experiences, "crushes," masturbation, and the individual's and the parents' attitudes toward these experiences are frequently major factors in adolescent adjustment. In the classroom and in the social and extraclassroom activities, the teacher has opportunities to secure significant data regarding this phase of development.

Social behavior and interests. The social adjustment of the individual may be indicated by clashes with social rules and

regulations, daily leisure activities, and relations with companions and friends.

1. *Antisocial behavior*: In regard to lying, stealing, temper tantrums, cheating, and other antisocial behavior, the following points should be noted: the age at which the behavior was first manifested; its frequency; the situations in which it occurs; the stimuli that provoke it; the persons to whom it is manifested; the variations in response when different people are present; the reactions of parents, teachers, and friends to the student's behavior when the misconduct is detected; the after-effects; the individual's feeling about it; and the satisfactions he gets from the behavior. A court record, if one exists, should, of course, be studied.

2. *Leisure activities*: Daily leisure activities may be studied by obtaining detailed daily schedules from the individual. These records show the kinds of activities in which he engages; the amount of time spent in each activity; and the extent to which the activities are solitary or in groups, outdoor or indoor, carried on at home or outside the home, worthwhile or trivial. The individual's likes and dislikes, kind of activities preferred, recreational facilities, and changes desired in the present way of spending leisure should also be ascertained. His chance remarks are often very illuminating and should be accurately quoted in the case record. The following remarks made by a high school boy illustrate this point: "Nobody likes me, not even the bus driver." "I want to stay small so I can play, but you have to grow up whether you like it or not." "I wish I had hundreds of friends."

3. *Companions and friends*: The companions and friends of childhood and adolescence frequently exert more influence on an individual than any other factor, though to some extent the choice of friends or lack of friends may be considered a symptom rather than a cause of maladjustment. In either event, a knowledge of the number, age, characteristics, economic and social status, and interests of friends is important in any developmental study. The individual's capacity for making and keeping friends, his way of choosing friends, his preference for a small number of intimate friends or a large number of acquaintances, his desire for other friends or group

associations, the attitude of his family toward his friends and of his friends toward his family, should also be noted.

4. *Emotional accompaniment*: How an individual feels in different situations should be noted. "Showing off" and a domineering manner may indicate merely a desire to get attention; daydreaming, a way of getting satisfactions that real life fails to give; running away from home, an effort to break away from family domination and to establish independence. There are many possible explanations of all these common kinds of behavior. A teacher who has informal contacts with students outside the classroom, who is entertained in their homes, and who attends their social activities is in a position to learn much about their emotional development.

Religious and emotional adjustment. Religious attitudes, including attitudes toward life and its meaning and purpose, are generally considered crucial in the adolescent's adjustment. The specific items to be aware of are the religious education that he has received at home and elsewhere, the regularity of his attendance at church and Sunday school and his own volition in these matters, his sense of sin and dependence upon some power outside himself, disagreement between parents or between parent and child in regard to religious beliefs and practices, the child's attitude toward death, and the purpose and plan that he has made for his life. Bertrand Russell described his childhood religious experience vividly in *The Conquest of Happiness*. He says that at six years of age his favorite hymn was "Weary of Earth and Laden with My Sin," that at adolescence he desired to commit suicide, from which he was restrained by his interest in learning more mathematics, and that eventually he adjusted himself to life by seeing clearly which of his desires were possible to attain and which should be abandoned.

The chief value of tests of emotionality, attitudes, and interests is in the leads given by specific responses made to the questions in these tests. These leads may be followed up in interviews with the individual. In the course of skillfully conducted interviews, the things that make the person happy or sad, or worried, or angry; his favorite topics of conversation, things about which he is curious; his attitude toward other

people, whether friendly and cooperative or suspicious and antagonistic; and the content of his daydreams and night-dreams may be disclosed. In the study of delinquent girls^a the majority were described as "variable" in mood, with "cheerful as a close second." They were "submissive rather than assertive, bashful rather than brazen," "followers rather than leaders."

Samples of creative work which the individual has done in schools or on his own initiative are objective evidences of interests and sometimes reveal emotional conflicts. Diary records also have revealed interests and emotional life.

Goals and purposes. An individual's philosophy of life, the things he wants most, are especially significant. These may be expressed in autobiographies, questionnaires, compositions written in English classes, or interviews. A goal sheet kept by the student from year to year may be filed in his cumulative record folder. Even young children can set specific goals for themselves and record their progress toward them.

Vocational interests and experiences. Vocational adjustment is another pervasive problem of adolescents, approached generally along three lines of inquiry.

1. *Parents' vocations and vocational attitudes:* It has been estimated that about 75 per cent of children would be able to succeed in the occupations followed by their parents.^b The remaining 25 per cent would probably not be happily adjusted in their parents' occupations. Serious cases of maladjustment sometimes occur when the parent insists upon a child's following the parental occupation. In a case study, therefore, the father's occupation, attitude toward it, and choice of occupation for his child should be noted.

2. *Individual's present and past vocational interests:* The individual's present and past vocational interests and the bases for these interests—acquaintance with someone engaged in the occupation, lack of knowledge of other occupations, advice received from various sources, opportunities open to him for

^a J. W. Bridges, *op. cit.*, p. 190.

^b Leta S. Hollingworth, *The Psychology of the Adolescent*, p. 76. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1928.

training, financial and other rewards of the occupation—should be ascertained.

3. *Previous experience:* Previous experience in supporting himself, partly or wholly, gives indications of the individual's capacity to succeed in the occupations chosen, attitude toward work and toward fellow workers and employer, tenacity of purpose, and need of further training. Frequently tied up with the problems of choosing, preparing for, and succeeding in a vocation are problems of sharing earnings with the family and psychological independence.

Facilities available for treatment. Many of the social resources that may be used for adjustment of the individual to his environment are suggested under the preceding headings. All resources available should be summarized: the relatives, teachers, and agencies, and what they can do for the individual in a constructive way; the facilities for recreation in the home, school, and community; and the vocational or educational opportunities offered by the environment.

These are the areas of inquiry usually included in a complete case study—to the reader, probably a bewildering number of details. But having an outline of this kind is less bewildering than having no knowledge of the information frequently found to be significant. The points mentioned are valuable in suggesting possible causes of a baffling problem. Lee and Kenworthy¹⁰ give a very helpful outline, emphasizing the interpretation and significance of items of information in each field of inquiry. This information is sought only in response to the individual's need.

A comprehensive case study might easily take one hundred and fifty hours. No teacher has the time to collect such a mass of information about his students, but with the help of this outline he can explore more thoroughly the areas giving the greatest promise of throwing light on a student's development. The chief value of this knowledge of the case study method

¹⁰ Porter R. Lee and Marion E. Kenworthy, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*, pp. 291-309. The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, New York, 1923. See also Gordon Hamilton, *Theory and Practice of Social Case Work*, (2nd Ed.) Columbia University Press, 1951.

is the background it gives for understanding a student who is trying to understand himself. Unless it is a means of helping some person, it does not fulfill its aim.

Limitations of the Case Study. The limitations of case studies are essentially the limitations of the persons who make them. A person who does case work ought to be mature. This kind of maturity has nothing to do with age but rather with adjustment in the major areas of his life: in the family, in his work, and in relation to sex and society. Persons who have worked through difficulties of their own are often especially helpful to other people because they have profited by their experience. A genuinely sympathetic attitude is basic to successful case work. Another difficulty may be a tendency of the case worker to impose his own inclinations: a teacher has a tendency to teach; a preacher, to preach; a mother, to be oversolicitous. The bias of the worker, already discussed in connection with the interview, must be recognized. Most serious is the limited ability of teacher-counselors to interpret and unify the data collected and to use it for the good of the individual student.

In addition to difficulties of the worker himself, there are the clients' inaccuracies of observation and memory. Many details of family history and early development are lost in the fog of faulty observation and memory. Case studies, however, are gaining precision through the verbatim recording of client-centered interviews, the use of standardized tests, and better technics of reporting observations. At best, case history data are fragmentary; they do not give a complete picture of the individual. Some significant information has been withheld, some overlooked, some rejected by the worker as of little worth. But as Allport said, "Properly used, it is the most revealing method of all."

THE CASE CONFERENCE

A case conference is, as its name implies, a conference about an individual. It is one form of child study group. Ideally, such a conference is held for every student, to consider whether he is realizing his best potentialities. One person who knows

the student best and is serving as his counselor collects and synthesizes all the information available about the individual. Other persons who have had contact with him—teacher, homeroom teacher, club sponsor, nurse, administrator, social worker, physician, psychologist, dean of girls or boys—attend the case conference. All present have an opportunity to pool their information, interpret the facts and opinions presented, and suggest ways in which they can help the individual realize his potentialities more fully.

A case conference helps each person present to understand the situation and the individual better. This leads to concerted action; each member of the school staff reinforces the work of others instead of pulling in opposite directions. The group may think of resources that may not have occurred to one counselor working alone.

Everyone learns from the case conference. Specialists often supply information teachers need; teachers often call the attention of specialists to the way in which the student is adjusting in the group. All obtain a better understanding of the kind of information that is most significant, what it means, and what the school and home can do about it.

The following is an example of a case conference held by a senior high school principal and his staff. There were present: the principal, the assistant principal (who is in charge of records), the dean of girls, the school nurse, the homeroom adviser, the teacher of English, the teacher of mathematics, the teacher of history, the teacher of French, and the class counselor.

PRINCIPAL. This is the first of a series of similar meetings I want to hold for the purpose of getting a more accurate picture of the special cases in our school. Eventually, I hope we can hold a case conference about every pupil in our school. So often, as in this instance, a boy or girl becomes a problem before we attempt an individual diagnosis. Certainly every boy and girl has a right to make and should make appropriate academic progress in this school. Where failures are occurring I believe there is a reason. Such meetings as these will attempt to find a solution of the difficulty.

Our attention will first be centered on those in the freshman class who have failed in three or more courses. The pupil we want to discuss today is Sarah Smith, who is in Miss Brown's homeroom.

She failed in three subjects this last marking period. Miss Brown, will you please report on your home visit?

HOMEROOM ADVISER. Sarah is twelve years old. She entered our school as a freshman in September. Her home conditions are very poor. Her mother feels this condition acutely. She constantly mentions her relatives who are better off financially and repeatedly compares Sarah to a wealthier boy cousin about her age. The mother is between forty and fifty years old. She is a tight-lipped, nervous woman. She has had a high school education. She dominates the home. She is an adroit housekeeper, very eager to make an impression, and is bitter toward her more wealthy relatives despite the fact that they give Sarah clothes which she receives very attractively. The mother wants her daughter to have all the advantages she herself did not have. In her opinion, her daughter should be a teacher and should travel extensively. She has insisted that Sarah take the college preparatory course.

The father is between forty and fifty years old. He has had a high school education. He is now doing manual work. The mother, however, is ashamed of his position. If she must speak of his work she says he has a business job.

Sarah has a younger brother, a year and a half younger than she. She speaks of him very seldom. They are always fighting or teasing one another.

Her developmental history indicates that she was a normal baby. She sat up at seven months and talked at ten. She has lived in three states since she started school, but has been in this city for the past six years. She graduated from elementary school with a rating percentage of 85.

The mother does not permit Sarah much social freedom. She does not allow her to leave the house after dusk unless accompanied by either her father or mother. She says she always knows when Sarah is going out and just when she is returning.

During the first week of school Sarah entertained some of her friends at her home. The mother was disgusted with the fact that they wanted to dance. Consequently she later refused to let Sarah attend the homeroom picnic. Sarah is very tight and restrained with her mother.

The mother is much perturbed over Sarah's failures and seems to take them as a personal insult—particularly since the boy cousin made all his credits. She thinks her daughter is lazy and reads too many novels.

CLASS COUNSELOR. Sarah's group tests show that in grade five her IQ on the Binet test was 115 and the group test she took upon entering high school gave her an IQ of 120. Her results in the Iowa Silent Reading Test were very high; her score placed her at the 95 percentile of the group.

In an interview I found Sarah very alert, quick, well developed.

enjoying the situation, and responding naturally. She said she preferred to read historical novels and classics. She also said that she liked to write; therefore, I asked her to write a free composition. She scarcely stopped to think and wrote about her father and an accident he had on a ship. She showed a great deal of anxiety about this affair.

HOMEROOM ADVISER. Her mother came to school a day or two after this interview and said Sarah had told her what she had written and that she (the mother) did not want us to be deceived. This same thing, the mother said, Sarah had written about before and had received favorable comments on it. I took the theme to the counselor's office and we compared the two. They did have considerable resemblance. The old theme, however, was very stilted, labored over, and showed that the family had probably helped her. The new one was much freer, more mature, and really a much finer piece of work.

ENGLISH TEACHER. Sarah's interest in my class centers about drama. She is good in both drama and speech. She likes to write plays. The class liked one of her compositions so well that they decided to stage it. Sarah accepted a small part in it. I consider her work satisfactory and believe she has some ability.

DEAN OF GIRLS. Sarah has been in my office on two occasions so far. The first time was in regard to her schedule and the second visit concerned her club enrollment. She wanted to get in the Drama Club but the membership list was full. I recommended the Travel Club and I believe she joined it. She dresses very well and makes a good appearance. I feel, however, she is not always sincere in her statements. She seems to be trying to make an impression. She had to wait for some time the last visit she made to my office. She rather resented this delay and seemed sensitive because I did not talk to her right away.

MATHEMATICS TEACHER. Her interest in algebra seems based solely on the fact that she will need it for college entrance. Her papers are seldom in on time and are never complete. I do not think she cares for the subject at all. She seems to give it the least possible attention. She says she studies an hour each evening but her work does not show it. I have offered to help her if she would come in during my free period after school, but she has never appeared.

FRENCH TEACHER. This is about the same situation in her French class. She never has her lesson completely. She looks out the window when we are translating, and acts as though she is bored. I have talked to her on a number of occasions but it seems to do no good. I failed her last grading period and so far this period she has done nothing to improve her standing.

HISTORY TEACHER. Her history work is not satisfactory either. She seems to like reading historical novels that are on the reading

also probably resents not being allowed to go out with other boys and girls.

CLASS COUNSELOR. I had the same feeling. The easiest way Sarah could annoy her mother is by failing in school. Her mother feels disgraced when Sarah gets poorer marks than her cousin.

ENGLISH TEACHER. The school may be at fault, too. Sarah was bored in my class until we began doing work that was more closely related to her life and interests.

ALGEBRA TEACHER. She doesn't have any basic understanding of my subject. To succeed in it now she would have to start at the beginning and build a good foundation.

DEAN OF GIRLS. She doesn't seem to have any definite goals or purpose or long-term plan, as some pupils do. I doubt whether the subjects she's taking have any meaning, use, or purpose to her.

PRINCIPAL. These all seem possible reasons for Sarah's failure. What do you think we can do about it?

HOMEROOM ADVISER. I have seen the mother and think she rather likes me. I understand how she feels—so determined to have Sarah succeed. Maybe in another interview or two I could help her see that she's defeating her own purpose by nagging Sarah so much. If she'd join the church club in which she's interested, she might have less time to nag Sarah. She might also be able to show Sarah a little more real affection, which I think she does feel.

FRENCH TEACHER. I was planning to have several French plays in my class and I can see that Sarah gets parts in them.

HISTORY TEACHER. We could do a little more in my class, I know, in relating history to present-day problems. I think Sarah would spark up to that kind of discussion. I could also relate historical novels to our class work.

CLASS COUNSELOR. She seems to need several hours of good counseling—a chance to think about herself and the direction in which she can go. I think she needs to understand herself and her family relations better. She's bright enough to do this. But I don't have the time for this kind of interview.

DEAN OF GIRLS. I agree that she needs just that kind of counseling and I'll try to schedule an hour a week for her.

PRINCIPAL. These are all helpful suggestions. If we work together as you've suggested—without in any way making Sarah feel conspicuous or that she is a "case"—I think we can help her a great deal. Will you all report on what you've done at our conference hour next week.

A case conference of this kind gives increased understanding of the student and is a valuable experience for those present. It is one of the most effective forms of in-service education.

The second example is of a more specialized kind of case conference. Expert guidance with focus on choosing, preparing for, and entering a suitable vocation requires understanding of the individual, information about fields of work and available jobs, and skill in counseling. The following is an example of the unfolding of understanding of a boy gained during a case conference held by members of the staff of the Vocational Advisory Service, New York City.¹¹

This twenty-year-old boy was referred by the New York State Employment Service. He had been looking for a job for over three weeks. The counselor's general impression was that the boy was discouraged and confused about his vocational future. The only one of the four questions about his vocation that he could answer was, "How long have you been looking for a job?" He seemed to have no idea as to the kind of work he could do or wanted to do.

On the information blank and in the interview he gave evidence of wide interests and abilities: his marks in high school chemistry were high, as were his marks in mathematics also until he reached trigonometry. He liked English and did well in this subject, but failed in Latin. In college he liked sociology and psychology especially, but was also interested in and had taken art, music, and dramatics courses. He took whatever subjects interested him, without considering their vocational value. Since he did not have any clear vocational goals, he had taken any courses he liked. His favorite magazine was *Science News*. He was an enthusiastic amateur photographer. He enjoyed seeing ballets and for a time worked with a dance group. This led to occasional opportunities to act as a "super" in professional operatic performances.

The attitudes of his family seemed to intensify his confusion and discouragement. His father was a skilled worker and wanted the boy to follow in his footsteps. His mother wanted him to enter one of the professions. This was only one of the family, personal, and social pressures brought to bear on this boy.

In his work experience thus far he had used very little of his wide background of study. His last job—answering the telephone—he obtained because of his pleasant voice. He was laid off during a seasonal lag in the business.

His versatility and ability showed up strikingly on the standardized tests. On the Wechsler-Bellevue his total score was very superior, and his verbal score was higher than his performance score. In each of the subtests of the Wechsler-Bellevue the quality of his responses was high. On the Three Dimensional Test and the

¹¹ Miss Emma Scipp, Miss Anne W. Lloyd, and Mr. John T. Roberts.

Block Design Test he worked industriously and with interest. He seemed to enjoy working with his hands. In all the tests he showed evidence of a good clear mind. The test results provided a basis for giving him considerable reassurance.

On the self-analysis blank, called the *Information Schedule*, a sequence analysis of his answers gave important indications of his attitudes. From such questions as: How did you get along in school? How did you get along in work? Do you think you have as much ability as most people? there was evidence that he recognized his ability. He took failure hard. In answer to the question, "If you fail a subject what do you do about it?" he said, "Try to forget it. It makes me realize just one more thing I can't do." His level of aspiration was suggested by his answer to the question, "What do you think makes a successful life?" He answered, "Having achieved something worthwhile." He wanted to feel that he was learning and growing.

His outstanding assets were a good education, high mental ability, and versatile interests.

Having gained this information from the interview, school records, information schedule, and standardized tests, the next step was to think through possible long-term as well as immediate plans. He needed to have definite goals for the future.

The staff considered a number of possible vocational fields from the standpoint of his ability and interest, the further training needed, and the jobs actually available:

Teaching. Would his family be willing to have him get the additional education needed? If not, he would have to work his way through the year of graduate study. Since he showed little concern with helping others and had not mentioned teaching as one of his vocational interests, the choice of this field would be questionable.

The field of art. The main question is, "Does he have genuine creative ability?" Samples of his work did not show exceptional creative ability. He tended to make copies instead of drawing original sketches.

Technical fields in which he could use his interest in art and dramatics, as, for example, in stage lighting. To do this he would have to go through a period of apprenticeship as an electrician. Since his father is in this field he would have no difficulty in getting into the union. Another field using his varied abilities would be stage photography. The competition in this field is keen, but this boy would have a knowledge of performing arts superior to that of most applicants. The scarcity of workers and demand for persons with this kind of background made present placement in this field easy.

Other positions such as assistant to the curator in a museum or

librarian in his fields of special interest would be open to him if he obtained the necessary special training.

In the next interview with the boy, the counselor's aim was to show him that wide vocational horizons were open to him. The counselor presented to him the possibilities discussed in the case conference. This helped him to realize that his study in so many different fields was not wasted; it had vocational value. All his previous experiences could be drawn together to contribute to a rewarding future. The suggestions offered were very stimulating to the boy. He saw clearly the kinds of work he could do with relatively little additional education. He talked over the long-term possibilities with the counselor; the choice, however, was to be his. While thinking out his long-term plans, he was encouraged to seek immediate placement; the counselor realized that as soon as the young man earned money, family pressure would be sufficiently eased to permit his choice to be more objective. He had been helped to see the value of his mathematics and science foundation, and readily found semitechnical work, where he functioned so well that his confidence was restored.

EVALUATING STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

How can a teacher know whether his personnel work has been successful? First, he should keep his attention focused on the students—children and young people growing up in a free society; he should see clearly their needs as workers, as members of families, as citizens, as persons. Second, he should translate these needs into attitudes, knowledge, and skills that each should acquire. Third, he should study the guidance methods used. Fourth, he should try to find out whether these methods have been effective in helping every student develop his best potentialities.

The best way to do this is to study the developmental records and case studies of a representative sampling of students. Through this study, needs for guidance are revealed. Lack of information about educational opportunities and about vocations, the unsuitability of students' programs with reference to their aptitudes and goals, discrepancies between abilities and achievement, poor quality of interests, and many other indications of the need for guidance (see pages 28-29) become evident. The higher the percentage of cases that, so far as can be judged by the records, are realizing their poten-

tialities, the more successful the guidance program. To be sure, other factors in home and community that are facilitating or interfering with self-realization should be considered. But the efficacy of personnel work, in the long run, should be demonstrated in a larger number of individuals who are developing their best potentialities and using their knowledge and skills for worthwhile personal and social purposes.

Evaluation should be an intrinsic part of the process of personnel work. As the teacher works with individuals and with groups, he focuses his attention on what each of his students can become. He judges his success by the progress each one makes toward realizing his most acceptable self.

The crucial test of student personnel work is growth in personality. Any evaluation of the teacher's guidance should seek to answer these questions: What desirable changes are taking place in students' attitudes, interests, and behavior? Have students obtained a clearer picture of the finest kind of person they can become and are they moving in that direction? Are their initiative and energy being increasingly released and used in wholesome, constructive activities—in better academic work, in healthful leisure interests, in friendly outgoing relations with old and young, boys and girls? Is the teacher himself becoming a more vital, understanding person—more interested in people and in life and with an increased sense of personal worth?

Questions and References for Part Three

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which of the suggestions regarding interviewing can you apply in your next conference with a student? How can you improve your interviewing technic?
2. In what ways does an interview differ from an ordinary conversation?
3. Find examples of interviews in literature and show how they illustrate the principles of interviewing.
4. What standardized tests are given in your school? In what ways can you make use of the results of standardized tests in the counseling of individual students?
5. What should be the minimum testing program for all students in your school? What additional tests would be useful for individuals or groups under certain conditions?
6. What part should the teachers have in the testing program?
7. What recommendations would you make regarding telling a student or a parent the results of his test?
8. The principal asks you to rate the students in your class on certain characteristics. What will determine the accuracy and value of your ratings?
9. Visit a class or club; select one member and use all the suggestions you have gained in observing him.
10. Why make a case study?
11. How may the case study be used to help a student help himself?

12. What are the most important guiding principles in interviewing and in making a case study?

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Appendix

Coronet Building, Chicago. 15 min. Shows how Bill overcame his shyness by becoming interested in other people.

You and Your Family. Produced by Association Films and Look Magazine; distributed by the YMCA. 10 min. Situations causing tension in families are dramatized and the audience invited to discuss desirable ways of handling them.

A number of 16 mm. films, about 10 minutes in length, deal with reading, writing, and study problems. They are produced and distributed by Coronet Instructional Films⁴ and include such titles as the following:

How Effective Is Your Reading?

Reading Poetry

How to Judge Facts

Know Your Library

Writing Social Letters

Writing Business Letters

Films for use in vocational guidance are of three kinds. One deals with choosing a vocation:

Aptitudes and Occupations. Produced and distributed by Coronet Instructional Films, Chicago. 16 min. Presents information on six fundamental abilities and their relation to vocational choice.

Of Pups and Puzzles. Produced by Teaching Films Custodians, 11 min. Shows ways of determining one's fitness for a job.

Another type pictures various occupations:

Your Life Work series. Produced by Vocational Guidance Films, Inc., Des Moines, Iowa; distributed by Carl F. Mahnke Productions, 7514 North Ashland Avenue, Chicago. Portrays about fifty different workers.

Still other films depict the life story of well-known leaders in certain fields:

Story of Alexander Graham Bell. Produced by Twentieth Century Fox; distributed by Films, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street, New York. 105 min.

Luther Burbank. Produced by Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc. 12 min.

Film catalogs may be obtained from the companies mentioned in the foregoing list.

Some film strips have been prepared for classroom use with elementary school children. An example is *David and His Family*, produced by Young American Films, Inc. 18 East 41 Street, New York 17, N.Y. 30 frames.

⁴ Send for catalog of Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

To extract the maximum of value from audio-visual aids, observers should know what to look for before a film is shown. After seeing the film, they should discuss what they have learned and applications they can make. For example, the film *Learning to Understand Children* might be introduced by suggesting these questions for discussion: "In what ways did the English teacher gain understanding of individual pupils in her class?" "What did the teacher do to further Ada's best development?" In some groups attention might focus on the technics demonstrated in the film—the short contact interview and the home visit. Other groups might use the film most profitably as material for practice in writing anecdotal records of significant behavior.

The opaque projector may be used in throwing anecdotal records or parts of cumulative records on the screen. A discussion of the good and poor features of the records and how they may be interpreted and used is the best way for teachers to improve the quality of their observation and records.

Tape recordings of skillful interviews have the value of giving the tone of voice and emotional quality of the inflection as well as the exact words used and manner of speaking. Tape recordings transcribed and skillfully dramatized approach reality still more closely, presenting expressive movements and facial expressions as well as quality of voice.

B

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C

Analysis of Situations Calling for Guidance

Several examples of situation analysis are given here. These will serve to teach a method of recognizing and using opportunities for guidance in the home, school, and neighborhood. Much more valuable will be your own description and discussion of situations which you are facing, problems with which you would like to deal in the guidance way.

Read the situation described, noting all the elements that enter into it and their relation to one another.

What seems to be the problem? (A *problem* should be interpreted as anything that is interfering with the best development of an individual or a group.)

How did it arise? What seem to have been the causes of the difficulty? Give any evidence available in support of your hypotheses.

What do you think might be done about it? Indicate some of the first steps that may be taken, as well as a long-term plan.

The technic is essentially the well-known problem-solving method—clear, accurate description of the situation; statement of the problem and elements entering into it; suggested solutions, each evaluated; selection of best solution and plans for carrying it out. This is not a purely intellectual exercise; emotions enter in and should be recognized and dealt with. Limitations in human personality also play an important part. Many persons feel like saying, with the Apostle Paul, "For the good that I would I do not; but the evil which I would not, that I do." Parents and teachers have to work within the framework of attitudes and ways of thinking and acting established long ago. They cannot expect miracles to happen. But they can expect desirable changes to result sometimes from very small changes in their behavior and relations.

DEVELOPING A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The Situation

The superintendent of a school system had become convinced of the soundness of the small guidance unit. He recognized that it was not humanly possible for one or two counselors to meet the guidance needs of all the pupils in a large high school. Moreover, he felt that the understanding of guidance methods that teachers would gain from working with a group of about thirty pupils would eventually make their classroom teaching more effective.

The homeroom organization was already established in the five high schools. But each homeroom group met for only ten minutes daily and was functioning merely as a reporting period, not as a guidance group. An extension of homeroom time seemed to be indicated.

For two years the superintendent held meetings with the high school principals to discuss the small guidance unit. Finally all the principals were convinced that it would be desirable to introduce an extra thirty minutes a week for homeroom guidance. At the end of the school year, the decision was announced to the teachers.

The response of teachers was a strong feeling of insecurity and even of resentment. Their resistance to the idea of an extension of the homeroom period seemed to stem from three main sources: First, they felt the plan should have been developed democratically with the teachers, not superimposed upon them. Second, many of them were unprepared for conducting the informal group activities of the homeroom. Third, they felt it would mean another preparation for them, equal to that of one of their other subjects.

Recognizing the teachers' need for help in using this thirty-minute period, the Guidance Department included a section on homeroom guidance in the Institute held for a week before school began in the fall. Two representatives from each high school were asked to attend this section of the Institute.

At first hostile to the idea, the representative teachers gradually changed their attitudes as they began to see, through demonstrations and discussions, how they could make good use of the extra period. They went back to their schools ready to cooperate and work out homeroom programs with their pupils.

But these teachers who had attended the Institute were in a very small minority. Other teachers even seemed to resent their interest in the program.

During the fall the counselors in each high school tried to be helpful. They met with the homeroom teachers in small groups. In these groups

the teachers aired their grievances, but did not seem to get much beyond continuous gripe sessions. It almost seemed as though the thirty-minute homeroom had become the scapegoat for a more generalized teacher dissatisfaction.

Since many of the teachers said they did not know how to use the time effectively, it was planned at midyear to have a series of meetings in each school. Only one half-day session was spent in each school—one hour with each of two or three groups of teachers. The aim of these meetings was to give the teachers suggestions and other help in making the best use of the weekly thirty-minute period. Beforehand, the teachers prepared questions to be answered. Typical comments and questions were:

"Why weren't the teachers consulted before the extended homeroom period was introduced?"

"The pupils in my homeroom are not interested in any of the topics suggested; they want to use the period for study."

"We discuss school and personal problems as they arise in our other classes. What do we need the extra period for?"

"My homeroom pupils are interested in doing different things; how can I provide for these diverse interests?"

"How can I acquire skill in using some of the informal group work methods with my homeroom group?"

"Where can I get the information necessary in discussing educational and vocational plans and other common problems?"

The leader of these groups of teachers in each school accepted the teachers' feeling about the homeroom and was sincere in wanting to help them to make the best possible use of the period. But in some schools it was impossible to break through the teachers' resentment. Others were more receptive. Few, however, attended the after-school demonstrations of informal group methods with high school pupils. There were three of these demonstrations:

1. A group discussion of the homeroom periods the pupils felt were most valuable and interesting. The pupils, while expressing dissatisfaction with many of the homeroom periods, all described some which seemed to have been very effective.

2. A demonstration of the use of a film, "How to Get Your Studying Done," with a group of slow-learning pupils. This showed how well retarded pupils respond to informal discussion about things within their experience.

3. A demonstration of role-playing. The first situation suggested was a homeroom period in which the pupils were not interested. Each pupil played a different role—the objector, the "wise-cracker," the indifferent pupil, the constructive thinker, the cooperative member of a group. In

discussing this role-playing situation one of the pupils said, "The students weren't interested because the teacher wasn't interested." The objector said, "If the teacher had followed up my suggestions, I'd have gone with her." The second situation was one in which the older child felt she was given too large a share of home duties while her sister was allowed to stay for the school extraclass activities. These demonstrations showed clearly how much pupils enjoy and profit by these informal procedures, which are not at present included in most regular classes.

Although little seemed to be accomplished by the one-hour sessions with teachers in each school, they may have obtained some suggestions that would make their teaching in other—if not in the homeroom—periods more effective.

Discussion

Is the idea underlying the small guidance unit sound? Is the homeroom the best form of small guidance unit? Might an extended-subject period, a life-adjustment class, a core-curriculum group have been a better form of organization? What is the advantage of a homeroom period in a rather traditional school system?

What were the factors in this situation that resulted in the widespread resistance on the part of the teachers to the thirty-minute homeroom period once a week?

How could the administrators have handled each of these factors more effectively?

What could individual teachers have done? Should they have taken a more tolerant and experimental attitude toward the situation and tried to work out with pupils the best way to use the period? In what ways might they have shared with other teachers the best procedures they developed?

What should have been the role of the Guidance Department and the counselors in each high school?

How might the interest and cooperation of the pupils in making the best use of the homeroom period have been enlisted?

What methods could be used to evaluate the homeroom periods at the end of the first experimental year? What kind of information might be obtained by asking pupils in all English classes to write a composition on their homeroom period? The directions for the compositions might be as follows:

"Many schools have a homeroom period in which teachers get to know one group of students better than they can in their regular classes. Some use the period to discuss school problems and common personal problems such as 'What program should I take in high school?' 'What shall I do

after high school?' 'How to get along better with my family,' 'How to make good friends,' 'Better ways in which to spend my free time—things to do and places to go,' etc.

"You have had a chance to try out a thirty-minute homeroom period this year. How do you feel about it? Describe in detail one or two of the most worth-while and interesting periods you've had in your homeroom. Tell how you think the homeroom period can be improved next year."

What use would you make of these compositions after they have been obtained?

As a principal, how could you work with your teachers to help them improve their guidance methods?

GUIDANCE OF GIFTED CHILDREN

The Situation

This situation was presented by the mother of a twelve-year-old girl with an IQ of 170. In describing her daughter's childhood and her present school experiences the mother said:

"Our daughter has always been in good health. She learned to read without any help from us before she entered school. She was ready for and wanted to study the piano by the time she was five years old. Since that time, she has been studying music and is doing well. At the end of her first year of school she was skipped to the third grade. She has always got along well with the other children and was liked immensely by her teachers. In the fifth grade she wrote a play with a part in it for every pupil in the class. She is particularly interested in dramatics and does very well in plays. She has also written several poems and stories. She has always been enthusiastic about school and her marks have been consistently high. On her report card her fifth grade teacher added a note saying that it was a pleasure to have Mary Jane in her class and 'interesting to observe Mary Jane's enjoyment of living.'

"When Mary Jane was ready to enter sixth grade, we moved to another part of the town. This necessitated a transfer to another school. Here the children, most of whom had come up together from kindergarten, did not accept her when they discovered that she presented competition. They made things difficult for her, with the result that she was unhappy all through the sixth grade. I feel that her teacher was partly at fault in failing to recognize the situation and attempt to remedy it. In sixth grade she won first prize in a city-wide vocabulary contest.

"Now she is in seventh grade in Junior High School. During Education Week last fall, I went to the school to meet her teachers and spoke at some length to her homeroom teacher, who was also her science teacher.

He told me that Mary Jane has the highest IQ in the school. He told me that he had talked with all of her other teachers and they all agree she has no idea how bright she is. All the teachers are delighted to have her in their classes and feel that she makes a definite contribution to the class, which is of benefit to the other pupils. Sensing the other children's attitude toward her; he tries not to call on her as often as she is ready to answer, in order not to arouse the other pupils' dislike of her. He also appointed her librarian for the class, and she gives up a study hall period to work in the school library. Her English teacher, who has her for two periods a day, one for grammar or spelling and one for literature, told me that in all her many years of teaching, she had never had a pupil like Mary Jane.

"All this sounds fine, except that now her classmates will not accept her. Some of the children call her 'The Brain,' and 'Einstein'—and they don't say it in a complimentary manner! She has no friends, is not invited to parties or other social activities, and she is hurt and miserable.

"She does have outside interests: the Glee Club at school, the Girl Scouts, music, and French lessons. She swims and dives, skates, rides a bicycle, and likes outdoor play. Of course, she reads constantly.

"My husband and I are worried about her not being accepted by her classmates. Perhaps we have failed in some way, but we don't know where we went wrong. We fear that this non-acceptance may result in maladjustment which could warp her future development. Her school work does not tax her at all. In a reading test taken very recently, she scored eleventh year plus. Our greatest concern is for her happiness and well-being. We have a son who is a normal child eight years and six months old. Mary Jane's unhappiness and frustrations are vented on him, which results in disharmony at home.

"Can you help us? Can you recommend a child guidance clinic? Or do you think such consultation necessary?"

Discussion

Is it unusual for a new child not to be accepted at first by the other children who have been together for a long time?

Reading between the lines, can you suggest anything the child, the parents, or the teachers may have done to intensify this attitude toward Mary Jane?

What is your explanation of the other sixth grade children's behavior toward Mary Jane? Give any evidence stated in or derived from the account given to support your hypotheses.

How do you account for Mary Jane's apparently good adjustment in

the fifth grade? What effective guidance was given by the fifth grade teacher? Give other examples of guidance of gifted children in regular classes which you have observed or can imagine.

What can be done now to help Mary Jane and her parents? What can the homeroom teacher do? What can the other teachers do—and refrain from doing? (*Gifted children say, "When teachers single us out and give us special recognition, it makes the other children dislike us."*) What can the parents do? Should they take Mary Jane to a child guidance clinic? Why, or why not? What should they emphasize when they talk to Mary Jane's teachers? What can Mary Jane herself do?

Would it be desirable to give the mental-hygiene play, *The Ins and Outs*,¹ in the homeroom and later in assembly? Should Mary Jane take part? If so, what part? Do you think the homeroom teacher could handle the discussion of this play skillfully? Why?

What other suggestions do you have for helping the members of the class to learn to take an accepting, friendly, constructive attitude toward people? How can a teacher develop a guidance philosophy and attitude among the pupils in his class?

The case described presents only one of many difficulties often encountered by extremely gifted children. Other situations in which they need guidance are:

1. In adjusting to a school curriculum which is centered around the needs of less verbally gifted children.
2. In acquiring effective reading and study habits. Being able to pick up information so readily, they may not discipline themselves to learn methods that require a little more effort.
3. In being socially and emotionally immature in comparison to the other pupils in the class. This happens occasionally when the child has been accelerated with reference only to his intellectual capacity.
4. In learning to accept others slower than themselves. Gifted children need to learn a certain amount of social conformity, courtesy, and consideration for others, and not burst out with the answer, which is so obvious to them.

Classes having several highly gifted children in them often present opportunities for guidance of the other children as well as of the gifted ones. Less able children, from their own observation of the gap between their ability and that of the gifted children, may develop feelings of inferiority and inadequacy. There is also the problem, highlighted in the situation just described, of helping the less gifted to accept and appreci-

¹ Nora Stirling, *The Ins and Outs*. New York State Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association and National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York.

ate the contribution which the highly gifted child may make to the group's goals and the welfare of all.

Many of the same questions could be raised in situations involving other kinds of exceptional children.

GUIDANCE OF AN ADOLESCENT

The Situation

Peter is in the seventh grade in a suburban school. About one-fifth of the pupils in this school are children of very wealthy parents; the other four-fifths come from working-class families. Because of these extremes of income and social position, there is considerable consciousness of social distance in the town, but not—except in a few instances—among the children in the school. Peter is one of the children who are affected by this cleavage in social status. He has lived in this community all his life.

His father is a truck driver. He is a mild, retiring man. He supports a family of four on a limited income. For eight years he has served as a member of a school committee composed mostly of business executives and professional men. His opinions have carried little weight in this group.

Peter's mother is a fine housekeeper, neat, energetic, and a willing worker in community affairs. Her home is comfortable and is furnished in good taste.

His sister, who is in the third grade, has been sickly all her life. At birth neither she nor her mother was expected to live. Both of them have been hospitalized many times. The little girl has been given every consideration and has withdrawn from Peter the attention he was accustomed to in his early years. He, too, was a sickly child.

At thirteen, Peter is one of the tallest boys in his class. He is good-looking and dresses very well. He is physically weak and is considered a "sissy" by the other boys. On a standardized intelligence test he obtained an IQ of 108; on achievement tests his scores are average or above. Nevertheless, his class work is very poor. His papers in spelling, arithmetic, and composition would be rated at about fourth grade level.

For years nothing has been done about his cheating on examinations. He has been given good grades and has carried home a fine report card because his teachers have been influenced by his father's service to the school. This year, however, he has been graded by two new teachers who have not allowed his father's position on the school committee to influence them. These teachers are trying to help Peter realize his capabilities and to regain his self-respect and the respect of his classmates.

Before school started this year Peter's two new teachers found out as much as possible about Peter and the other pupils in their class from teachers who had had these children in previous years. From these teachers they learned that Peter was a "nice boy," that he cheated on tests, that he did better on standardized tests than in his daily work, that he became sullen if crossed, and that he did not get along well with his classmates. There were no cumulative records from which to get more information.

When classes started, it soon became evident that the entire seventh grade had very poor work habits and low standards. To improve these conditions the teachers gave light assignments, with plenty of time to do them. Then excuses for poor or incomplete work were not accepted. While the class as a whole was working, the teachers helped individual pupils improve their reading and study methods. Most of the children responded well to this procedure, but Peter did not.

The teacher then gave Peter special topics on which to report and encouraged him to complete them, but he continued to think that he could get an *A* or *B* without working.

During the monthly testing period, the teacher saw Peter exchanging information with another boy and told them their papers would not be graded. Later in the day the teacher spoke to both boys about it. He said, "Peter, I've just read your paper and found that you did very well on it. You would have passed the exam by yourself."

Peter began by defending himself. "I wasn't cheating, Mr. Richmond. We were just talking about something else."

"That could well be so," said the teacher; "but you knew there was to be no talking of any sort during the test, and you knew what the consequences would be. It wouldn't be fair to your classmates if I overlooked your behavior. Isn't that so?"

"Yes, I guess so," said Peter.

"Well, don't worry about it," the teacher told him; "but just remember not to do it again." They then talked for a while about a racing car model which Peter wanted to make in shop.

The next day the teacher visited Peter's mother. The mother was very much concerned about Peter's cheating on an examination. "I'm thoroughly ashamed of his actions," she said.

The teacher tried to relieve her anxiety and to focus her attention on the present and future rather than on the past. When the mother said, "He doesn't like school and hasn't liked it since he started," the teacher asked, "Do you have any idea why he doesn't like school?"

The mother then began to talk more freely about Peter's desire to go to a private school which his wealthier friends attend, his desire to

be like them and have the things they have, his dislike of one of his teachers, his crying spells. She further said that his father did Peter's home work with him every night, and was surprised to learn that Peter often did not hand it in. The need for a physical check-up was also indicated.

A few days later a joint conference with the parents, the school principal, and the boy's two teachers was arranged. The principal began:

PRINCIPAL. We've arranged this meeting today with just one purpose in mind—to help Peter.

FATHER. My wife tells me that Peter isn't turning in his home work although he has finished it. Is that true?

TEACHER B. He hardly ever does anything for me and when he does hand work in, it is of a very poor grade.

FATHER. Well, I can understand why he doesn't work for you, because he doesn't like you.

MOTHER. Oh, he's just being stubborn. He's finally come across teachers who won't stand for his loafing. Mr. B is the one he's with most, so he's the one Peter dislikes most.

PRINCIPAL. Mr. B's class is notorious for its poor work habits, poor attitudes, and low standards. He has done wonders with that group this year, and it's too bad Peter dislikes someone who is trying to help him.

TEACHER A. You know, it would be much easier for a teacher to give Peter a passing grade and let him slip through. We are not doing that because it isn't fair to you or to Peter.

FATHER. We thank you for your interest in Peter, but what are we going to do? Maybe I'm not helping him enough.

PRINCIPAL. You want to do what is best for Peter, I know; but you may be helping him too much. The teachers are giving him assignments that are fair; he is able to do them himself. Suppose you try just helping him when he asks for help. We have to remember that our children won't always have us to help them.

MOTHER. Suppose we try helping him less at home and see if that works. But if it doesn't work, what are we going to do?

TEACHER A. We can keep on trying to get to the roots of the trouble. The thorough physical examination Peter had yesterday may give us some more insight into the cause of Peter's actions.

PRINCIPAL (ending the conference, which had lasted almost an hour). Well, we haven't come to a definite conclusion, but we've got some good ideas to consider. Suppose we think it over for a few days and then meet again. In the meantime your decision to put Peter "on his own" a little more is well worth trying.

Both parents seemed to understand Peter's behavior a little better and

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